

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

**UNDERSTANDING THE DYNAMICS OF YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIO-
ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT: A STUDY ON SOCIAL POLICY AND STRATEGIC
RESPONSES FOR IMPROVING YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND LIVELIHOODS IN
BOTSWANA.**

BY

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

WASEDA UNIVERSITY

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**A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL
SCIENCES IN WASEDA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN SOCIAL GOVERNANCE**

Declaration

I declare that this doctoral dissertation and the work presented in it are my own and have been generated by me as the result of my own original work. This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other University, and all the sources used or quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references. The information was gathered from primary and secondary sources, of which the former included in-depth face to face interview, focused group discussion, questionnaire survey, and the latter included scholarly materials included narrative approach using literature and document analysis. The dissertation was conducted in compliance with the ethical standards and guidelines of the Graduate School of Social Sciences in Waseda University.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my daughter, Arefa, whose presence in my life has provided a strong motivation and inspiration to complete my doctorate. My mother; Kgololesego Freedom Diraditsile, who saw the value of education and supported me unconditionally. *Thank you, mum, for holding my hand throughout.*

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research in Botswana should obtain a research permit from the relevant arm of Government. I would also like to extend my deepest gratitude to cooperation of senior management, programmes officers, and young people who took part in this project as my respondents. The study could not have been feasible without their participation.

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Well, I should mention that the grace of The Almighty God has continued to shine on me from the first day I entered in the academic arena. I never had to pay for my studies; I have been blessed by obtaining scholarships for pursuing further studies for both my master's degree and doctorate degree.

Research journey

In April 2010, I was employed by the Government of Botswana as Youth Officer in the Ministry of Youth, Sport & Culture (MYSC). The ministry was subsequently renamed Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development in 2016. I had the privilege to implement government policies and programmes that are aiming at poverty eradication amongst Botswana. One of my responsibilities was to foster youth development and empowerment, financing young people to kick start income generating projects/businesses, and monitoring the funded businesses. I have worked for MYSC for five years, and I discovered that the government was often spending funds on short term under employment, quick fixes and unsustainable programmes with little impact on job creation. What makes the situation worse is the fact that, over the years there has never been any coordinated attempt to engage in critical analysis on why past and current youth intervention programmes have not improved the livelihoods of young people.

In June 2014, I attended four (4) months training on Capacity Development for Entrepreneurs and Small Medium to Micro Enterprises (SMME) activation in African Developing Countries in Japan at Hiroshima International Plaza. The training was conducted by Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) and while in Japan, I learnt that key actors in the local government and private sector are partners in research projects, and most of the government policies and programs are guided by evidence-based research. I then developed a keen interest in conducting an empirical research on the impact assessment of youth intervention programmes in Botswana, where my study focus shall be on understanding overall social governance, policy making and labour policies in the Asian context as well as to explore the way social policies and social governance is generally understood and how it is fostered in Japan. This will benefit Botswana

more so that there is no study that has been done on comparative perspectives of Asian context and Botswana on social development taking the plight of youth into consideration. As a result, it does not seem unreasonable to state that this research is breaking new grounds and is contributing new information new knowledge to the body of academia, it also informs policy and practice intervention in Botswana and elsewhere in the African continent.

Furthermore, my motivation for this research has stemmed from my experience as a lecturer in the Department of Social Work, Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Botswana. Participating in research activities, seminars and making presentations in conferences on youth development and empowerment changed me in a fundamental way. In this regard, I realized that youth unemployment and underemployment is prevalent in Botswana as young people lack skills, work experience, job search abilities and the financial resources to find employment. Hence, my professional work experience as a practitioner and my lectureship experience on teaching social policy courses framed my doctoral studies.

Evidence abounds to the fact that, a glaring gap exists between research and programme activities in Botswana and youth intervention programmes are no exception. Therefore, it is imperative that policies and programmes be informed and guided by empirical research. At a practical level, programmes must have an in-built monitoring and evaluation framework to determine the extent to which they are able to deliver on their mandates. At present, there is a lack of empirical understanding and feedback mechanisms of how youth development and empowerment programmes are conceived, designed and implemented. Therefore, it is the argument of this dissertation that it is only using scientific data generated through empirical

research that the government can design well-informed policies and programmes to effectively meet the needs and aspirations of the unemployed youth and thus improving youth employment and livelihoods.

Notably, the lack of systematic data collection inhibits the ability to (a) design relevant and context specific youth intervention programmes (b) monitor and evaluate their impact and quality (c) identify where changes could be made to improve the programmes. Moreover, despite disturbing levels of youth unemployment and poverty in Botswana, youth unemployment in the country is not fully understood. Hence, this research intends to disentangle this problem and identify practical solutions to address it.

Therefore, based on the foregoing, this research examines the strengths and challenges of programmes meant to stave off youth unemployment with a view to propose long lasting solutions. It highlights the need to reassess past and current approaches to youth intervention programmes with a view to develop more effective, relevant and sustainable solutions, as little has been done to determine the reasons for projects failures.

Keywords

Youth Development

Youth Empowerment

Strategic response

Social Policy

Unemployment

Acronyms

AAFU	Affirmative Action in Favour of Youth
ACBF	Africa Capacity Building Foundation
ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific Countries
AfDB	African Development Bank
AU	African Union
AYA	African Youth Alliance
APO	Assistant Programmes Officer
BDC	Botswana Development Corporation
BNIP	Botswana National Internship Programme
BNSP	Botswana National Service Programme
BNYC	Botswana National Youth Council
BOB	Bank of Botswana
CEDA	Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Agency
CYP	Commonwealth Youth Programme
DC	District Coordinator
DYA	Division of Youth Affairs
DYC	District Youth Council
IP	Ipelegeng Programme
EDD	Economic Diversification Drive
ERA	Economic Report on Africa
FGDs	Focused Group discussions

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoB	Government of Botswana
GVS	Graduate Volunteer Scheme
ILO	International Labour Organization
IYD	International Youth Day
LEA	Local Enterprise Authority
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MGI	McKinsey Global Institute
MLHA	Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs
MYSC	Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development
NAPY	National Action Plan for Youth
NAPFY	National Action Plan for Youth
NDP	National Development Plan
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NSF	National Strategic Framework
NSPR	National Strategy for Poverty Reduction
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAYE	Plan of Action for Youth Empowerment
PO	Programmes Officer
PPO	Principal Programmes Officer

RNYP	Revised National Youth Policy
SA	Strategic Area
SMME	Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises
SPSS	Statistical Packages for Social Sciences
SPO	Senior Programmes Officer
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UB	University of Botswana
UN	United Nations
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WB	World Bank
YDI	Youth Development Index
YDF	Youth Development Fund
YES	Youth Empowerment Scheme
YFF	Young Farmers Fund
YFP	Youth Focal Persons
YO	Youth Officer

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Abstract

Youth unemployment is a major policy concern that deserves urgent attention because it has become a threat to the social, economic and political stability of the country. It leads to a variety of social ills, including; poverty, alcohol abuse, crime and social unrests. Therefore, the main aim of this dissertation was to explore overall social governance (social policies and strategic responses) towards solutions for addressing youth unemployment in Botswana. The specific objectives were to examine thematic areas of Botswana Revised National Policy that do not produce results in employment creation, to identify how youth intervention programmes can be modified and improved to address youth unemployment effectively, to enhance the capacity of the government and private sector to design and implement policies and programmes for promoting youth employment, and lastly to derive policy recommendations appropriate to the Botswana context based on the lessons from Japan.

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative method commonly known as mixed method, and it was cross sectional in nature. Regarding research design, the study adopted a triangulation approach. Thus, it used three research designs which are; exploratory, explanatory, and descriptive. The rationale behind the triangulation research design was on the basis that the study sought to describe the effects of unemployment on the quality of the youth in Botswana, and to explain contributing factors that leads to high unemployment rates and failure of youth intervention programmes. Lastly, the study was exploratory on the grounds that there is no previous research that has been conducted in Botswana on the impact assessment of youth intervention programmes in the country.

The data was collected using in-depth semi-structured interviews as well as survey questionnaires. A total of 100 young people who benefited from one of the youth intervention programmes took part in the study. In addition, 20 Programmes Officers and 25 key informants drawn from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development took part in the study as well. The participants were drawn through systematic sampling and purposive sampling. Data analysis used multiple facets and approaches, for instance, quantified data was analyzed with descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies, percentages and charts. This was achieved by using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS), whereas for qualitative data, underlying meanings were summarized with the aim of identifying major themes. Thus, collected data was arranged according to study groups, and verbatim accounts of participants. The raw data from the field was transcribed, sorted and arranged to the different types of the participants, coding was done, and the last step involved interpreting and drawing meanings out of the data.

Findings from the interviews show the policy strengths as well as weaknesses such as fundamental challenges that undermine or hinder effective implementation of the youth policy and other youth intervention programmes. The findings also shed light on the interface between the government and the private sector when it comes to addressing youth unemployment. It became apparent that youth interventions aiming at addressing youth unemployment by the government and private sector are not bearing results on the basis that these institutions are high individualized and there is little investment in the joint information.

The study pointed to a range of fundamental challenges associated with youth programmes in Botswana. This dissertation recommends that there is need to involve the youth in policy

formulation and implementation in order to address their concerns. Further, it advances the view that the government should consider designing a robust social policy agenda for youth. The policy will provide ideas and guidance on what needs to be done to address the ever increasing social and economic challenges including youth unemployment in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

It is worth to point out that having extensively perused the literature on youth development and empowerment around the globe, this research has reached a conclusion that these two terms can be defined with a lot of different connotations. Fletcher (2014) defines youth development by asserting that it is a discipline in the field of youth work, founded on the belief that young people can move best through their developmental stages when they are supported across all sectors of the society. On the other hand, youth empowerment can be understood as a strategy to help the youth realize their socio-economic aspirations (Page & Czuba, 1999). Noticeably, it is an outcome of both individual efforts and external support (Jupp & Ali, 2010). Therefore, it is worth to highlight that the African region is facing many challenges as it strives to develop and empower young people. For instance, persistent high levels of poverty, unprecedented proportions of youth unemployment, the current coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, rising levels of violence and crime, just to mention but a few.

There is therefore a compelling need to review and evaluate the existing youth development landscape in Botswana. This is critically important for supporting the development of new and more sustainable strategies to effectively manage the existing and emerging challenges and create an enabling environment to optimize prevailing opportunities. Most importantly, there is a

need for visible demonstration of the appropriate awareness, vision and political will to pursue new and more sustainable youth development strategies not only in Botswana but elsewhere in the African region. It is, therefore, the argument of this research that a breakthrough might be achieved if the courage and foresight evolve from a mainly social welfare to transformational approach to youth development.

This research examines the extent to which the Revised National Youth Policy in Botswana is effective in supporting youth socio-economic empowerment. This is achieved through an empirical analysis by paying attention to the interventions that are aiming at addressing youth unemployment in Botswana. This chapter presents the context of youth in Africa, overview of Botswana, ontology and epistemology, the background of the study, research objectives, research questions, discusses and justifies the significance of this research as well as present the context of the study.

1.1.1 Context of Youth in Africa

Africa is a vast continent. It has over fifty independent nation states with varying social, economic and political situations. A generalization on the African situation is thus difficult as it may not only conceal the true picture in individual countries, but also perpetuate negative stereotypes about the continent (Lucas, 2015). However, one cannot shy away from the reality of certain conditions and situations that are common to some African countries. Conditions of social and economic deprivation, poverty, unemployment, inequalities, corruption, and illiteracy,

violations of human rights, intolerance, conflict and violence continue to be a development challenge in many African countries.

There is a noticeable lack of youth empowerment in the African region. According to Mutuki (2011) the youth are not seen as potential agents of socio-economic, political and legal change and are excluded from decision making that affects their well-being. Evidence abounds that, there is a tendency of the African governments to come up with policies and programmes for the youth without engaging them in the programmes conceptualization. The pertinent question to ask is who is considered a youth? Defining youth age often becomes the most sensible standard of classification on the grounds that, youth definition often has an implication on the design of different programmes.

In a nutshell, what constitute a young person is an issue to many organization and countries. Henceforth, what constitute a young people person is an issue to many organization and countries, many countries in the world have defined youth ages differently based on their national youth policies. In the Pacific, some countries consider youth up to age 40. The USAID Youth in Development Policy also presents a strong case for not limiting the definition at age 25. At an international level, the United Nations (UN) has defined youth as persons of between 15-24 years. In African context, according to the African Youth Charter, youth typically refers to people of ages 15-35 years. In Botswana, like other African countries, National Youth Policy of 2010 defines youth as a person who is between 15 -35 years. The diversity shows that there are many ways to define youth given the programmatic and political priorities, which range from demographic to bio-psycho-social and sociological definitions (UN, 2013).

In concluding this section, it can be said that the current digitalizing and globalizing world structures, combined with Africa's meagre economies have only served to alienate young people further (Kimando, Njogu & Kihobo, 2012). Seeing as young people have the most potential, physical strength, energy, and they constitute the largest proportion of Africa's general educated population, it is only appropriate that the various development and socio-economic programmes throughout the region be designed with the youth in mind. However, there is a substantial body of evidence (see, for example, Rwomire & Raditlhokwa, 1996; Schraeder, 2005; Ackah-Baidoo, 2016; Mogomotsi & Madigele, 2017) exposing the youth empowerment challenge that Africa faces, specifically of how to engage the youth as well as channel their efforts and energy for constructive outcomes that will benefit their fellow counterparts and the nation at large.

Therefore, an empirical comparative study is needed as to what can be learnt from other countries outside Africa, particularly Asian countries such as Japan, on how the problem of youth unemployment can be addressed in Africa, which will highly benefit the case of Botswana.

1.1.2 An overview of Botswana



Source: <https://www.mapsland.com/botswana/large-scale-political-and-administrative-map-1995>

1.1.3 Country Background

Geography

Botswana is a landlocked country located in the Southern part of Africa and is surrounded by Zimbabwe, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia. The country has a maximum length from north to south of about 1000 km and a maximum width from east to west of about the same (Jefferis et al., 2013). With a total of around 580,000 square kilometres, evidence abounds that it is larger than France and about the same size as Texas. Additionally, the nation's terrain is mostly a flat desert, characterized by savannah and grassland (Sebudubudu, 2017). Interestingly, as most of the country is sparsely populated by humans, it is a haven for wildlife, of which it boasts for hosting the largest population of elephants in the world.

In the northwest of Botswana lies the Okavango river which empties into the flat Kalahari Desert to form one of the largest inland deltas in the world. This is the only area of Botswana that holds significant amounts of permanent water (Mafela, Maundeni & Mookodi, 2011). There are no permanent rivers elsewhere inside Botswana, although part of the northern border of Botswana is formed by the Chobe river and, for a short distance, the Zambezi. Apart from a moderately fertile strip along the eastern side of the country, the Kalahari Desert blankets almost the entire remaining portion of Botswana.

Demographics

At independence, in 1966, the population was 550 000 (Central Statistics Office, 2000). According to the 2011 Population and Housing Census, Botswana's population is 2, 021 million

as compared to 1, 783 million in 2001 and 1, 326 796 for 1991 and 941 027 for 1981 and 574 094 for 1971.

The population is concentrated in the eastern part of the country where arable farming is possible on account of better and more favourable climatic and soil conditions. The low population density is generally favourable for mineral exploration and mining projects, as it minimises potential population disruption and disputes over land use. The capital city of Botswana is Gaborone. Urbanisation is increasing at a very rapid pace with corresponding rural depopulation, and over 60% of the population now lives in urban areas (Central Statistics Office, 2012). About 70% of the population class themselves as Christian, 20% have no religion, and the remaining 10% adhere to traditional practices or other religions (Jefferis et al., 2013).

Politics

Botswana has flourishing multiparty constitutional democracy, which has operated continuously since independence in 1966. Elections for National Assembly occur every five years where each of the elections since independence has, been freely and fairly contested and has been held on schedule. The National Assembly has 57 elected members and additional six “specially elected” members. Furthermore, the president is the leader of the party that wins a majority in the National Assembly. The Cabinet is selected by the President from the members of the National Assembly. An Independent Electoral Commission (IEC) was established in 1996, and this has helped to consolidate Botswana’s reputation for fairness in voting (Maundeni, 2004).

The constitution may be amended in minor ways by a simple majority vote in Parliament, however, more substantial amendments require a two-thirds majority, and major revisions must be submitted to a referendum (Mafela et al., 2011). Important constitutional changes in recent years have included limiting the term of the President to ten years, reducing the voting age from 21 to 18 years, and specifying that should the position of President become vacant, other than the time of a general election, the Vice President shall automatically become President.

Governance

Botswana is widely considered to be one of the leading countries in Africa in respect of good governance (Sebudubudu, 2017). This reflects the generally high quality of public institutions, and independent legal system, and a low level of corruption, all of which have been sustained over a long period of time. This achievement has been reflected in several international surveys and assessment like the World Economic Forum (WEF), the Ibrahim Index of African Governance and the Bertelsmann Transformation Index (Jefferis et al., 2013). The WEF assesses the quality of institutions as the first pillar of its Global Competitiveness Index. Of the 21 indicators measured under the institutions pillar, Botswana scores in the top 50 countries globally on 20 of them (Ibid, 2013).

In 2011, the Ibrahim Index of African Governance, which measures the quality of governance in sub-Saharan Africa's 48 states on the basis of safety and security, rule of law, transparency and corruption, participation and human rights, sustainable economic opportunity, and human development, ranked Botswana as the third best, same in 2010. Botswana's overall score was 76, after Mauritius and Cape Verde and ahead of Seychelles and South Africa (Jefferis et al., 2013).

To this extent, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that Botswana is amongst the top performers on African continent.

Social development

Botswana's impressive economic performance over the post-independence period has been the basis for widespread social development (Jefferis et al., 2013). Government revenues, primarily derived from the mining sector, have been used to fund extensive social provision, particularly in the form of public education, health provision, water supplies, roads and other infrastructure (Ibid, 2013). Given that the level of social and physical development was extremely low at the time of independence, considerable achievements have been made in achieving virtually universal primary and junior secondary education, health care (88% of the population live within 8km of a health facility, and trained health personnel attendee to 99% of births) and access to clean water supplies (Siphambe, 2006). It is only the most remote areas that state provision of these basic services may be unavailable (Nthomang, 2012).

Economic structure and growth

Botswana has a well-deserved reputation as the best performing economy in Africa over the past few decades, and indeed one of the better performing economies in the world. Over the thirty years between independence in 1966 and the mid-1990s, Botswana was the fastest growing economy in the world with average annual GDP growth rates of over 10% faster than the better known "tiger" economies of South East Asia (Siphambe, 2006). This prolonged growth took Botswana from being one of the poorest countries in the world in 1966 to middle-income status by the 1990s (Nthomang, 2007).

This rapid growth has been built upon the foundation of the diamond mining industry, which since its commencement in the early 1970s, took Botswana to be the largest producer of diamonds, by value, in the world (Jefferis et al., 2013). Noticeably, Botswana's four diamond mines are operated by Debswana, a 50-50 joint venture between the Botswana Government and De Beers. Fortunately, for both parties, diamond mining has been highly profitable, and revenues that have been used to finance broad-based development expenditure.

In contrast to Botswana's impressive economic growth, good governance and prudent macroeconomic and fiscal management, the country faces high levels of poverty and inequality as well as low human development indicators (Nthomang, 2007). While poverty rates declined from 50% at independence to just over 20% today, significant pockets of poverty remain, especially in rural areas. Education expenditure is among the highest in the world, at around 9% of GDP and includes the provision of nearly universal and free primary education. However, Malema (2012) notes that, the sector has not created the skilled workforce Botswana needs to diversify its economy. Unemployment has remained persistent at nearly 17.8%, and as a consequence, income inequality in Botswana is among one of the highest in the world. The HIV and AIDS pandemic has further exacerbated the situation with the HIV and AIDS adult prevalence rate remains at 22%, contributing to education and health outcomes that are below those of countries in the same income group.

It is worth to note that the country faces a key policy dilemma of how to grapple with the predicted decline in previously buoyant diamond revenues (Malema, 2012). Projections of future

diamond revenues are uncertain and while diamonds may not be fully exhausted for another generation, the output is already well past its peak (Siphambe, 2012). Over the past 20 years, while Botswana has made some progress in reducing its dependence on diamonds, the level of economic diversification needed to offset diminishing mineral revenues will remain a challenge (Malema, 2012).

1.1.4 Botswana Vision 2036

Botswana has a long-term development strategy known as Vision 2036, which underscores the fact that the nation must remain focused on our national development path. The prime objective of this Vision remains the delivery of prosperity for all and ensuring that every Motswana enjoys a dignified livelihood (GoB, 2016). In this regard, the prime objective is expected to be achieved through four main specific pillars where quality will be measured by the following pillars.

- Sustainable Economic Development
- Human and Social Development
- Sustainable Environment
- Good Governance, Peace and Security

In light of the above, these four pillars provide an ambitious but realistic framework for further progress that will be translated into programmes and initiatives with measurable timeframes. True that, many young people in Botswana are facing the reality that they may never realize their

dreams and aspirations to be self-reliant or in control of their aspirations, albeit the existence of the national vision. This serves as an indication that there is a gap between what the nation dreams of and the reality of the situation at hand, a problem which is centred around the low youth development and empowerment capacity.

On this note, this doctoral research argues that without effective deliberate policies supporting development, there is an incredibly high likelihood that Botswana may not reach its targets by 2036. Hence, this research aims to contribute to the attainment of the country's Vision by identifying gaps, problems and inadequacies in the existing social policies on youth development, social development, economic development and good governance through its results.

1.1.5 Ontology and Epistemology

Briefly, one may describe the concepts of ontology, epistemology and methodology in research as follows:

- **Ontology** has to do with our assumptions about how the world is made up and the nature of things.

What is the nature of the phenomena, the entities or things, the social reality you want to study, or your object of research? Mason (2002) argues that:

... this question requires you to ask yourself what your research is about in a fundamental way, and probably involves a great deal more intellectual effort than simply identifying a research topic. Because it is so fundamental, it takes place earlier in the thinking process

than the identification of a topic. It involves asking what you see as the very nature and essence of things in the social world or in other words, “what is your ontological position or perspective”.

Silverman (2009) noted that researchers and/or scholars have different ways and conflicting beliefs when it comes to their views of the nature of the phenomena they intend to study. To put this into perspective, below are some of statements that Silverman (2009) mentions:

- Social phenomena exist “out there”, as well as outside people’s consciousness, and as researchers we need to study scholars’ views of these phenomena by “testing” hypothesis derived from the existing abstract of scholarly literature;
- People constantly create social phenomena, and when we study the phenomena, we co-construct what we study.

Like the exponents of interpretive and related constructivist paradigms (and also in the case of this dissertation) the researcher is interested in understanding the world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live in it; the unemployed youth, policy makers, organisations representing them, relevant government departments dealing with youth intervention programmes, academics studying the phenomenon of youth development, under employment, youth well-being and so on.

- **Epistemology** has to do with our beliefs about how one might discover knowledge about the world.

According to Neuman (2007) epistemology or the theory of knowledge is the branch of Western philosophy that studies the nature and scope of knowledge. How do we know what we know? What is knowledge? What is reality?

Schwandt et al (2007) states that:

“This is the study of the nature of knowledge and justification. There are many theories of epistemology. For example, empiricist epistemology argues that knowledge is derived from sense experience. Genuine, legitimate knowledge consists of beliefs that can be justified by observation. Rationalist epistemology argues that reason is the sure path to knowledge. Rationalist may claim that sense experiences are an effect of external causes; that are ideas (concepts, theories, etc.) provide a structure for making sense of experience; and/or that reason provides a kind of certainty that the senses cannot provide.”

Mason (2002) says that questioning what we regard as knowledge or evidence of things in the social world entails the epistemological question; in general, these questions are designed to:

... help you to explore what kind of epistemological position your research expresses or implements. It is important to distinguish questions about the nature of evidence and knowledge – epistemological questions – from what apparently more straightforward questions are and how to collect, or what I shall call ‘generate’ data. Your epistemology is, literally, your theory of knowledge, and should therefore concern the principles and rules by which you decide whether and how social phenomena can be known, or how

knowledge can be demonstrated. Different epistemologies have different things to say about these issues, and about what the status of knowledge can be ...

Epistemological questions should therefore direct you to a consideration of philosophical issues involved in working out exactly what you would count as evidence of knowledge of social things (Mason, 2002: 16). Epistemology also asks questions about how knowledge is constructed and here, the following aspects are important:

- Developing knowledge by applying the methodology of the natural sciences “objectively” to social phenomena and mathematically providing relationships between variables or causes
- Building knowledge by applying quantitative and qualitative methods to social phenomena and constructing the experiences and views of people involved in such phenomena
- In building knowledge, acknowledging that researchers cannot remain aloof as the preceding positions suggest, since they co-construct the data required to create knowledge.

The epistemological position of this research is based on the three points above. In other words, the relationship of the knower and what is known are inseparable. This study looks at what is being done in Japan to ensure that youth intervention programmes are sustainable and are long-lived. It also interrogates measures put in place to support youth employment policies as well as the youth intervention programmes by the relevant stakeholders in order to ensure that their

sustainability. It further establishes how the continual management of social policies is carried out in Japan and its basic philosophy on creating employment for youth.

Methodology

Methodology has to do with the tools and techniques of the research (Babbie, 2010). The methodology can use either qualitative methods such as, inter alia; in-depth-face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, or observation (Newman, 2007). On the other hand, quantitative methods use certain research techniques to gather data for information dealing with numbers and anything that is measurable (Mutchinick, 1996). As the norm in the quantitative studies, statistics, tables and graphs are often used to present the results of these methods. Notably, it is the prerogative of the research in terms of which method to choose, based on the study aim and/or what is being investigated (Babbie, 2010).

Therefore, based on the foregoing, the researcher is of the opinion that using a mixed methodology and carefully reflecting on, and discussing, particular lived experiences through interviews, focus group discussions, and controlling interviews, and by also gathering data through surveys, in some instances, will bring about some important insights. Specifically, it has revealed the challenges of youth development and unemployment in Botswana. It has also indicated the current predicaments that impede participation in the labour market, as well as the prospects for youth intervention programmes in the country.

1.2 Background to the study

The difficulty in finding employment as a means for securing a livelihood experienced by young people is an ongoing issue, along with the sense of frustration arising from them failing to meet their work expectations (Barbagelata, 2013). Indeed, youth unemployment has always been one of the major concerns of governments, NGOs, international development agencies, academics, development practitioners, the youth and communities at large. Noticeably, in recent times, the world has witnessed an unprecedented problem of youth unemployment with its negative consequences.

Globally, according to the International Labour Organisation *Global Employment Trends for Youth* (2013) the global youth unemployment rate rose from 11.8 to 12.7 percent between 2008 and 2009, the largest one-year increase on record (ILO, 2013). It is reported that in the ten years from 1998 to 2008, youth unemployment increased by a total of 0.2 percent or about 100.000 persons per year; but from 2008 to 2009 it increased by 5.5 percent, or 4.5 million persons, in a single year (ILO, 2013). By the end of 2010, the youth unemployment rate which has long exceeded that of other age groups saw its largest annual increase on record in 2009; at its peak, nearly 75.8 million youth were unemployed (United Nations, 2012).

In Botswana, while there is paucity of data and hence no clear trend or pattern of unemployment in the past decades, available data from the various sources now exists about the magnitude of the problem, see for example, CSO Census data (2001), BLFS (2006), HIES (2003), Botswana AIDS Impact Surveys (BAIS, 2004; 2009), Botswana Core Welfare Indicator Survey (2009/10),

and Statistics Botswana (2013; 2015). From these studies/surveys, it can be said that relative to adults, most young people remain unemployed, and as such they disproportionately experience every type of social problem with a direct or indirect link to unemployment (Nthomang et al., 2016).

For example, relative to adults, young people face several challenges including high levels of unemployment rate; lower incomes; poverty; commit more crimes and delinquencies and are overrepresented in prisons (Igbatayo & Babalola, 2014). Furthermore, many young people are involved in drugs and alcohol abuse, some of which also have a shorter life expectancy due to the HIV and AIDS scourge. It is worth to note that while Botswana has been hailed as a beacon of economic management compared to most African states, poverty and income inequality have remained major policy challenges (Sebudubudu, 2017).

According to the Bank of Botswana (2015) prior to the global economic downturn, which resulted in an unprecedented loss of diamonds revenues, Botswana was considered one of the best performing economies, with an estimated per capita income of US\$6, 000 as at the end of 2009. Even though Botswana has won many accolades for economic management over the years, for a large section of the population, unemployment, poverty and inequality define their harsh reality at household level, with poverty incidence estimated at 30.6% at national level (Sekwati, Narayana & Raboloko, 2012). Therefore, the critical challenge facing Botswana is to raise the rate of economic growth to levels incorporating broad-based improvement in the standards of living and well-being of the youth, as the country continues to face high levels of poverty,

unprecedented proportions of unemployment and inequality which have hit the youth group so hard.

According to Nthomang (2007) two decades ago, the Government of Botswana introduced The National Strategy for Poverty Reduction (NSPR) which is the key policy document guiding intervention regarding poverty. The strategy seeks to link and harmonize the various sectoral initiatives relating to poverty. Before the strategy was adopted in 2003, poverty reduction initiatives were somewhat fragmented, without a clear and concise policy framework or guidelines for addressing poverty (Nthomang, 2007). The results were uncoordinated interventions which yielded insignificant results in terms of reducing poverty. Notably, the NSPR was thus devised as a strategy to provide people with opportunities for sustainable livelihoods with the objective of expanding employment opportunities through broad-based economic growth, in terms of sectoral and geographic spread. At the micro level, the strategy sought to enhance access to social investment by the poor, with a view to promoting their capabilities to work and earn an income (Sekwati et al., 2012).

Key among the complementary policies is the Industrial Development Policy (IDP) and the Policy on Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (Nthomang, 2012). The aim of these policies is to facilitate an enabling environment for private sector development and growth. However, though the Government clearly has the desire or intent to diversify the economy, to date little has been achieved to date. Sekwati et al., (2012) state that, the private sector remains narrow and shallow, with weak inter-sectoral diversity and production links.

However, it is of paramount importance to note that there are challenges with NSPR, for instance, Sekwati et al (2012) note that the objectives spelt out in the NSPR are less than likely to be achieved, at least in the foreseeable future. Hence, the challenge remains with policy makers, private sector and all other institutions, including researchers, to find workable solutions to address socio-economic challenges including poverty and unemployment in Botswana. Notably, it is worth to indicate that the government has come up with many initiatives responses in order to address the above-mentioned socio-economic challenges. The initiatives have always taken the form of policy and programme formulation (Nthomang, 2012).

Since the 1990s, the dominant philosophy and official thinking on youth unemployment has been that of government-led policy and programme initiatives (Nthomang & Diraditsile, 2016). Therefore, it is against this background that the overall aim of this doctoral dissertation is to examine the strengths and challenges of programmes meant to address youth unemployment, with a view to propose long lasting solutions. The study highlights the need to reassess past and current approaches to youth development and unemployment with a view to develop more effective, relevant and sustainable solutions.

The main objective of the research is to undertake a diagnosis of the labour market from various dimensions and main challenges faced by the youth in entering employment, so that adequate policy program responses can be developed. The analysis mainly followed the framework of policy cycle, problems and employment dimensions. Being the first of its kind, this study is expected to contribute to future research on similar topics and provide reliable data, timely information for better planning and policy decisions to the answer to the pervasive problem of

youth unemployment in Southern Africa, with special emphasis to Botswana.

1.2.1 Problem Statement

Botswana as a developing country in Southern Africa faces numerous and complex challenges as it strives to achieve its developmental objectives. The current critical challenge is to raise the rate of economic growth to levels incorporating broad-based improvement in the standards of living and well-being of the youth. In particular, the country faces high levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality which have hit the youth group so hard.

Globally, International Labour Organization (2015) estimates no less than 40% of all unemployed people are young and as available knowledge indicates, young people are disadvantaged in finding employment, especially in rigid labour markets. There are several factors in this respect such as their relative lack of skills, unstable labour market experience and discrimination, all which contribute to the difficulty usually faced by young people entering the labour market. Thus, unemployment among young people has become a major policy challenge for governments and employers in the 21st century.

In Botswana, while there is paucity of data and hence no clear trend of pattern of unemployment in the past decades, available data from various sources exists about the magnitude of youth unemployment (see, for instance, HIES, 1994; CSO Census data, 2001; HIES, 2003; BAIS, 2004; BLFS, 2006; BCWIS, 2010, Statistics Botswana, 2011; Jefferies et al., 2015). From the above-mentioned studies, it can be said that relative to adults, many young people remain

unemployed and as such, they disproportionately experience every type of social problem with direct or indirect links to unemployment.

In this regard, the problem statement of this research is that, past and current youth policies and programmes have been unable to mitigate the problems faced by the youth, including; poverty, unemployment and social deprivation. Most of the policies and programmes that seek to provide solutions to problems of youth unemployment in Botswana are fundamentally flawed, ill-informed and short sighted because they are not, in the main, anchored on robust empirical research. At best, they tend to be reactive, politically motivated and short-term term quick fixes which are often poorly implemented. Therefore, the major criticism is that the existing policies and programmes provide guidelines on paper but lack effective mechanisms for enforcement and monitoring in practice. It is against this background, that this doctoral dissertation interrogates policy responses that seek to tackle the problem. It seeks to find the answers as to why current youth interventions are unable to effectively deliver on set objectives.

1.2.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this research is to explore overall social governance, social policies and strategic responses towards solutions for addressing youth unemployment in Southern Africa with special emphasis on Botswana. To this end, the following objectives have been formulated.

1.2.2.1 Research Objectives

1. To explore the interface between youth development and empowerment through the Botswana Revised National Youth Policy of 2010.
2. To identify how youth intervention programmes can be modified and improved to address youth unemployment effectively.
3. To enhance the capacity of the government and private sector to design and implement policies and programmes for promoting youth employment.
4. To derive policy recommendations appropriate to the Botswana context based on the lessons from Japan.

1.2.2.2 Research questions

In light of the research objectives, the following research questions have been formulated:

- *Who is mostly affected by youth unemployment?*
- *What are reactions of unemployed youth and their family members towards the predicaments experienced due to joblessness?*
- *How do community, household and personal factors limit young people's access to work?*
- *Which policy measure can most effectively mitigate the youth unemployment in Botswana?*
- *What interventions could enhance young people's access to the labour market?*

- *What are possible ways to address youth unemployment in Botswana based on the lessons from the Asian context?*

The first question asks for the theoretical framework which the research will be based on. The second one relates to perceived reactions in coping with challenges of youth unemployment. This question is imperative because each country has a very distinct labour market, coping strategies, challenges and factors of youth unemployment may vary substantially from one country to another. Consequently, it is important to unfold how youth development interventions and programmes can effectively and efficiently address youth unemployment head on in Botswana.

1.2.2.3 Hypothesis

- Lack of evidence-based policy making lead to failure rate of youth intervention programmes meant to address unemployment

1.2.3 Significance of the Study

The purpose of conducting this research was to contribute to the body of knowledge in many ways. For instance, to better define the significance of the problem, it is of paramount importance to ask: (i) Why is it important to empower and invest in the youth? (ii) Why is this doctoral dissertation worth conducting? (iii) What will be its contribution and implications? In attempting to answer the questions, the contribution of this doctoral dissertation is situated on three different levels. Thus, inter alia; research, policy and practice.

1.2.3.1 Contribution to theory and research

This doctoral dissertation is based on the edge of different research traditions and its findings may contribute to the existing body of knowledge in many ways. Most importantly, it will contribute to the youth employment, development and empowerment literature. There is no debate as to whether young people have a role to play in the development of any economy. The youth employment crisis is a global challenge, though its societal and economic characteristics vary considerably in size and nature from one country and region to another (ILO, 2012). Therefore, in order to fully understand the gravity of the youth unemployment situation, it is important to look at the issue from both a global and regional perspective, particularly the way in which the situation has developed since the global economic crisis.

As a matter of fact, the literature is in need for an empirical study as to what can be done to address this crisis of youth unemployment. On this basis, this research offers a conceptualization of youth development and an empirical study on the improvement of livelihoods and trends in youth participation, particularly in Southern Africa. The findings also point to the need for more research that may be wider in scope, covering more geographical areas, with respect to age, gender and educational level of unemployed youth.

1.2.3.2 Contribution to Policy

The findings of this doctoral research identified the gaps, problems and inadequacies in existing regulatory policies and labour markets participation in relation to the youth development in Botswana. From this perspective, it addresses the extent that policies specifically seeking to

encourage youth empowerment, employment and development in Botswana are implemented, evaluated and monitored. It is the premise of this work that the policy makers in Botswana may become proactive and amend or create new policies to address the crisis of youth unemployment.

Moreover, It is worth noting that the researcher is not aware of any research that has been done in Botswana on youth empowerment and development as a strategy for addressing youth unemployment. Hence, this dissertation sought to fill the existing gap on youth development and empowerment in Botswana.

1.2.3.3 Contribution to society

There has been an unprecedented proportion of youth unemployment around the globe. Hence, it is of paramount importance to note that, though the experience of being unemployed is personal, its impact remains societal. This doctoral dissertation highlights sought to come up with better ways of addressing the issue aided by improved understanding and the vision to see it from different perspective. It exposes the socio-economic realities in connection with the daring societal challenges of youth unemployment.

Professionals working in the area of youth development in Botswana and elsewhere such as teachers, counsellors, social workers, police, and youth focal persons could draw valuable information on the findings of this study to develop tools that will be aimed at youth empowerment in their areas of jurisdiction. These practitioners could use the findings of the study to understand the nature, scope, causes and effects of youth unemployment, hence enabling them to effectively help in dealing with this crisis.

1.2.4 Delimitation of the study

This study focused on the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development (MYSC) officials comprising (senior management and programmes officers) and young people who have benefited from the MYSC programmes. It is worth to note that, though the researcher was studying abroad in Japan, data was collected in MYSC Botswana.

1.2.4.1 Area of the study

The study was conducted in Gaborone, the capital city of Botswana, located in the southern part of the country. The researcher also chose to conduct the study in the surrounding areas of Gaborone, inter alia; Mogoditshane, Ramotswa and Tlokweng on the grounds that the researcher resides in Gaborone while in Botswana; hence it was convenient for the researcher during data collection.

1.2.4.2 Assumptions of the study

This doctoral dissertation assumed that the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development's core functions embrace the following; formulating, implementing, coordinating, reviewing and monitoring youth development policies, programmes and projects. Moreover, it facilitates youth participation in the development processes of the nation, addressing youth unemployment and the overall improving youth livelihoods in Botswana.

1.2.4.3 Organizations of the study

Chapter one introduces the research topic and outlines the research problem. It also presents the background to the problem, highlighting the current state of Africa's youth. It then outlines the

research questions, objectives and significance of the study in bridging the gap between the literature on youth intervention programmes and monitoring and evaluation thereof. Thirdly, it includes a section on conceptual clarification to provide an understanding of the core concepts and terminology used throughout this study. Further, situating this study within the public administration domain, lastly, it provides an overview of the contents of the subsequent chapters of this research work.

Chapter two of this study presents the literature review, followed by chapter three which provides a brief synopsis of legislative framework about the youth labour policies in Japan and the legislative work underpinning these policies. Chapter four discusses the theory that has been adopted in the study as well as its relevance and applicability in trying to explain youth development and empowerment.

Chapter five describes the methodology and research design. It provides an overview of the methodology, type of sampling, data collection techniques, the criteria for evaluation and the limitations of the study. It also provides the ethical considerations in conducting this research. Chapter six is on the presentation of quantitative results whereas chapter seven is on the presentation of qualitative results. Chapter eight presents consolidate the findings of this study, followed by Chapter nine which is on concluding with possible recommendations for improving youth employment in Botswana and elsewhere in the African continent.

1.2.5 Definition of Terms

According to Yegidis & Weinbach (1991) it is essential that the variables be accurately specified and defined by the researcher. They further indicated that typically, two kinds of definitions are of interest to the researcher: the conceptual definition and the operational definition. The conceptual definition is the way that the researcher states the precise meaning of a particular variable as it is used within a given research study (Babbie, 2006).

It is based on thorough understanding of the nature of the variables as derived from the review of relevant literature. A definition of the variable would be specified that conveys the specific meaning of the term as it is used in the present research and links the use of the term to a particular body of literature. The process of arriving at a conceptual definition is sometimes described as *conceptualization*.

According to Newman (2007) the operational definition specifies the procedures to be used for measuring the variable. It describes how observations of the variable will be made. Operational definitions are often specific to an individual study (Yegidis & Weinbach, 1991). However, they further indicated that when operational definitions from previous studies can be used, the findings of a study are more easily compared with those of the previous studies. The process of developing an operational definition is sometimes described as *operationalization*.

1.2.5.1 Strategic responses

In the context of this study, strategic responses refer to multifaceted approaches that includes collaboration from the government, private sector, non-governmental organizations, development practitioners, academics, the youth and the community at large (Ryan, 2006). In other words, all actions will have to use a holistic approach, young people must be at the forefront as active participants in all programmes that are intended to directly benefit them.

1.2.5.2 Youth unemployment

The International Conference of Labour Statistics provided a much broader definition widely accepted throughout the world which concludes that, a person is classified as unemployed if she/he meets all the following three conditions: (a) is without work (b) is available for work (c) seeking for work. In addition to this, the International Labour Organization defines the unemployed as members of the economically active population who are without work but available for and seeking work, including people who have lost their jobs and those who have voluntarily left work (World Bank, 2013). Furthermore, Fajana (2000) states that unemployment refers to a situation where people who are willing and capable of working are unable to find suitable paid employment.

1.2.5.3 Youth development

Youth Development is a strategic approach with a focus on practices for engaging entire communities in helping all youth thrive (Whitlock, 2004). It builds on traditional youth service approaches by emphasizing long term, systematic strategies for cultivating qualities and traits

desirable in young people through the creation of environments that support their developmental needs and capacities. Whitlock (2004) further argues that youth development is founded on the belief that young people thrive when they are developmentally supported across all sectors of the community, that is; school, youth serving agencies, faith organizations, community governance, business, juvenile justice and more.

1.2.5.4 Social development

According to Mupedziswa (2005) social development is about putting people at the centre of development. This means a commitment that development processes need to benefit the people, not only the poor, but also a recognition that people, and the way they interact in groups and society, and the norms that facilitates such interaction, shape development processes.

1.2.5.5 Social policy

Bardach (2010) notes that social policy is an interdisciplinary that it combines sociology, politics and economics to study how governments and society address issues of social welfare, individual well-being and social justice. Hernandez et al (2013) assert that social policy refers to guidelines and interventions for the changing, maintenance or creation of living conditions that are conducive to human welfare; education, health, housing, employment and food for all people.

1.2.5.6 Sustainable development

According to UN (2009) sustainable development is defined as development that satisfies the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to satisfy their future aspirations. In order to be sustainable, development must combine three main elements: fairness, protection of the environment, and economic efficiency. Kates, Parris & Leiserowits (2005) have pointed that the concept of sustainable development also involves narrowing the gaps between rich and poor countries.

1.2.5.7 Employment

According to Boland & Griffin (2015) employment is an agreement between an individual and another entity that stipulates the responsibilities, payment terms and arrangement, rules of the workplace, and is recognised by the government. In the context of this dissertation, employment is understood as offering service for financial rewards and other motivation to enable one to enjoy a satisfying life where they can afford at least the basic needs of life.

1.2.5.8 Evaluation

According to Patton (1997) evaluation is a process that critically examines a program. It involves collecting and analysing information about a program's activities, characteristics, and outcomes. Its purpose is to make judgments about a program, to improve its effectiveness, and/or to inform programming decisions. Hence, in this study evaluation is understood as a process that involves systematic collection; analysis and interpretation of project related data that can be used to

understand how the youth development programmes are functioning in relation to their project objectives of tackling youth unemployment in Botswana.

1.2.5.9 Monitoring

According to Nyonje, Nduge & Mulwa (2012) monitoring is a continuous process of gathering information at predefined regular intervals about ongoing projects or initiatives concerning their performance alongside its goals and objectives to ensure adherence to work schedules project inputs, outputs and laid down procedures. Moreover, Mulwa (2008) describes monitoring as a process of collecting and managing project data that provides feedback as pertains to the progress of a project. Mulwa (2008) adds that the process involves measuring, assessing, recording and analyzing the project information on a continuous basis and communicating the same to those concerned.

1.3 Conclusion

This chapter provided the context of this research, explaining the context of Youth in Africa, overview of Botswana, ontology and epistemology, background of the study, problem statement, the research objectives, research questions, significance of this study. It further clarified concepts pertinent to this research while stating the research hypothesis. Lastly, it provided a theoretical framework of how Sociologists and Social Policy Scholars approach unemployment. The next chapter outlines the literature review and legislative framework that has underpinned this research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses previous scholarly work on the subject matter of the study. It is organized into five (5) main sections in line with the main objectives of the study. The chapter is structured as follows; introduction, with the chapter presenting section one, which aims to explore the factors contributing to youth unemployment; inter alia, globally, regionally as studied by Timmons (2000). The study by Timmons can be related to the Botswana context. This is followed by section two which focuses on the magnitude of youth unemployment in the African region. Next, is section three which is a brief overview of the Botswana labour markets. This is followed by section four which is the discussion of sustainable development and poverty eradication. Finally, section five focuses on understanding social policy and social development in relation to youth empowerment and development.

2.2 Factors contributing to youth unemployment: A global perspective

It should be emphasized that high youth unemployment constitutes a major multidimensional problem not only for Botswana but for many developing countries across the globe; therefore, there has been a lot of research done on the subject matter. There is a substantial body of evidence that indicates that, many macroeconomic factors that explain the youth labour market performance, both total and youth unemployment depends on macroeconomic conditions. Notably, an important macroeconomic tool that is often considered a very important determinant of youth unemployment is the business cycle (Gemen, 2014).

Gemen (2014), studied youth unemployment in Spain and indicates that, the business cycle is a principal determinant of youth unemployment, because youth unemployment tends to disproportionately rise in recessions relative to adult unemployment. In the study Gemen explains how fluctuations in the business cycle implicate on labour demand and supply. Further, Gemen elaborates on how demand of labour is a derived demand, meaning that demand is dependent on the final good that the worker is producing.

In the job market, employers hire workers to produce a certain good and if the demands for that good decline, especially in times of recessions, employers are forced to cut employment (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2006). According to Ehrenberg & Smith, the decreasing labour demand means that young people, get to be the most vulnerable groups, considering that they have to compete for fewer jobs, hence face the highest danger of being laid off.

D'ippolito (2011) conducted a comparative study that focuses on the factors influencing joblessness among youngsters in Denmark and Italy. The study highlighted the strength of the economy as a significant determinant of youth unemployment and explained that when the economic activity is low and the level of adult unemployment is high, youth unemployment will also be high at aggregate level. Furthermore, the study revealed that a higher youth unemployment rate compared to adult indicator is common in many countries owing to the notion that this segment of the population is very sensitive to economic downturns. Similar findings were established by the World Development Report (2013) where they identified the core indicators of youth unemployment at a global level and asserted that young people are in a

more vulnerable position than prime-age members of the labour force as they are more severely affected by economic fluctuations.

The other core indicators of youth unemployment that were discussed in the report included, labour market regulations, performance of the economy and demographic issues. Evidence abounds indicating that, several studies have investigated the relationship between economic downturns and its impacts on youth unemployment (e.g. Choudhry et al., 2011; Demidova & Signorelli, 2011; Marelli et al., 2011). Accordingly, O'Higgins (2011) investigated the impact of the economic and financial crisis on youth employment in the European and concluded that young people are more affected by the crisis.

Another study conducted by Scarpetta, Sonnet & Manfredi (2010) emphasized that the crises aggravate the structural problems that affect the transition of young people into the labour force. Undeniably, during and after a crisis, there will be a decline in GDP and this results into a reduction of labour demand; in this situation, school-leavers are competing with more jobseekers for fewer vacancies (OECD, 2009). Youngsters are already among the first to lose their jobs, mainly due to the higher diffusion of temporary contracts, with a consequent high difficulty to get another one (OECD, 2009).

A study conducted in America also showed evidence that the youth labour market is highly volatile, when aggregate unemployment increases, youth unemployment tends to rise as firms cease hiring (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010). They further explained that during economic downturns like the recession, young people were the ones more negatively affected during the

financial crises. Likewise, a study conducted in France which sought to explain the overall youth unemployment experience and found that high unemployment rate was as a result of labour market conditions linked to economic activity level (Bruno & Cazes, 1998). The study also mentioned high labour cost and an unsupportive wage system as factors influencing youth unemployment.

Aggregate demand fluctuations have been recognized as one of the leading explanations for youth unemployment (Yenturk & Baslevent 2007; O'Higgins, 2012). In both the developed and developing world economic downfalls have resulted in increased unemployment for the youths. Further, study by Levin (2012) associates economic growth with employment rates, ascertaining a positive relationship. Notably, many economies are unable to create enough jobs to match the supply of educational institutions according to Levin. This statement further gets supported by Kabaklarli (2011) stating that when economic activity is healthy and developing employment, as well as youth employment gets better.

Freeman & Wise (1982) concur with the line of thinking of Kabaklarli (2011) by stating that, one of the prominent determinative factors of youth employment is the strength of the economy as a whole. Their study contended that when the aggregate level of economic activity and the level of adult employment are high, youth employment is also high. Furthermore, the employment of youth appears to be one of the most highly sensitive variables in the labour market, rising substantially during boom periods and falling substantially during less active periods.

It is worth to highlight that; there is a school of thought that is premised on the fact that as long as the economy is doing well, youth employment will increase. However, many African countries have proven this assertion not to be entirely true. For instance, Botswana has been praised over the last few years for sustained economic growth, but such growth can be termed as ‘jobless growth’, unemployment has been consistently accompanied by growing GDP levels (Mogalakwe, 2008; Leshoro, 2014). In a jobless growth economy, unemployment remains stubbornly high even as the economy grows (Ajilore & Yinusa, 2011). Though Botswana’s growth prospects for the medium term remain favourable, unemployment and diversifications remain a major challenge.

There is a body of literature that asserts that there are few jobs created in Botswana. A few researchers have mentioned the structure of the economy of Botswana as a possible cause of poverty and unemployment (Malema, 2012; Hillbom, 2008; Ajilore & Yinusa, 2011). This is because the main driver of the economy, particularly the mineral sector is not the main employer and has only influenced economic growth (Malema, 2012). Along the same lines Siphambe (2007) shares the same sentiments with Malema (2012) by highlighting that the explanations for growth without employment experience in Botswana is because the mining sector has been the source of growth. The forgoing also underscores that for growth to generate employment there is need to invest in sectors that have relatively high elasticities of employment. However, there still lacks a consensus as to which sectors are most important in order to be considered where the government can exploit for employment creation.

It should be recalled that the impact of institutional factors on youth unemployment has been widely researched by many authors (see for example, Quintini & Martin 2006; Isengard, 2003). For instance, a comparative study between Germany and the United Kingdom analyzed major institutional characteristics of their educational systems, labour markets and welfare systems and their impacts on youth unemployment (Isengard, 2003). The study concluded that country-specific arrangement of these institutions can help to explain differences in dimension, structure and duration of youth unemployment. In particular, institutional factors analysed that had a major impact on youth unemployment were the one's facilitating the transition from school into the labour market (Demidova & Signorelli, 2012).

Moreover, Breen (2005) also further explains that two institutional factors play a central part in determining youth unemployment rates where the educational system's role in signalling the suitability of a job seeker for a job, and the degree to which employers are prevented from dismissing workers. This study also revealed that youth unemployment tends to be higher in an environment where there is a high regulation of labour markets and employers are restricted in their freedom to dismiss unsuitable workers. Conversely, it tends to be low in liberal labour markets and in countries in which the educational system sends very clear signals about job seekers' abilities and skills (ibid, 2005).

2.2.1 Supply side factors

A considerable amount of literature indicates that the main supply side factors determining youth unemployment are education and skills (Kabaklarki et al, 2011; Siphambe, 2003). A case study of Germany and United Kingdom shows that the individual risk of unemployment is not equally

high for all young people, but rather depends on various socio-economic and structural factors like gender, education, nationality or region of living (Isengard, 2003).

Most studies emphasized that the main reason of the generally worse youth labour market performance with respect to adults is related to the lower level (and/or different quality) of human capital (and productivity) of the youth (Demidova & Signorell, 2012). In addition, it has been documented that the educational level is the most immediate variable measuring human capital; however young people lack the other two components of human capital, namely generic and job-specific work experience. According to Carmeci & Mauro (2003) educated youngsters need to acquire firm-specific knowledge by working activities for “schooling” human capital to become productive. For instance, evidence from Germany and United Kingdom indicates high youth unemployment rate and reports that education and experience are the key individual risks which contribute to youth unemployment (Isengard, 2003). The individual level of education is an important determinant of occupational success (ibid, 2003).

Samji, *et. al.*, (2009) evaluated the energy jobs and skills in Mtwara, Tanzania and provides evidence of the skills gap, especially among the young people, exacerbating the problems associated to youth unemployment. Further, the findings of the study revealed, higher youth unemployment rates in the country does not necessarily mean scarcity of jobs but the inability of youth to acquire the relevant jobs.

Moreover, Chigunta (2002) explains that through the schooling system children are prepared for the future. However, mis-education has been cited as one of the major causes of high

unemployment rates in Africa (Diraditsile & Ontetse, 2017). Along the same lines, Gil-Kashiwabara (2007) notes that rigidities in the school system are not calculated to correct the imbalances in the African continent. Further, Benya (2007) also echoed similar sentiments that, the main role that public universities in Africa play is to produce civil servants, many universities struggle to produce graduates who will fit into today's labour markets due to failure to equip graduates with employability skills.

The educational attainment of the workforce has always been considered a strong predictor of the degree of economic development of a country (Boeri & Van Ours, 2013) henceforth Botswana has invested heavily in the education sector. A very key question that should be taken into consideration regarding this issue is exactly how much is suitable for an investment in education? Education is used as a screening device in job applications. Stiglitz & Yusuf (2001) acknowledges that clearly better education got people better jobs; it puts one ahead of the job queue and further explained that social returns on investment in education declined overtime. Accordingly, there is a huge difference between social returns on education investment in education than private returns on investment. Several empirical studies have found that unemployment tends to lower for persons with higher educational attainment. Elhorst (2003) explored the impacts of education on an individual's employability and found a direct relationship between the level of educational attainment and employability.

Furthermore, a study conducted in South Africa by Msigwa & Kipesha (2013) found that youth with higher educational levels had lower levels of unemployment. On the contrary Martin (2012)

found that the educated have higher rates of unemployment not because they are educated but because of lack of work experience which is more pertinent among the youth.

In Bulgaria, Dimitrov (2012) examines youth unemployment and provides evidence that, youth employment problem is high in the country and factors such as early school leaving age, low education quality and were the key determinants of youth unemployment. The study also revealed that social status and family background greatly impact on youth unemployment.

In Nigeria, Awogbenle & Iwuamadi (2010), sought to discover constraints that impede young people in search of jobs. The study by Awogbenle & Iwuamadi found out that, facilitating self-employment, bringing alienated and marginalized youth back into the main economic stream, facilitating skills and experience development and promoting innovations are some of the possible solutions to youth unemployment.

In Botswana, Motlaleng & Narayana (2014), note an inverse relationship between the level of education against employment. An individual's employability is determined by the individual's efforts to invest in education and training, as Pheko & Molefhe (2016) also concur. Further, according to Becker (1993) an individual human's capital development, training and education are the most important investments to be made. Moreover, Naafs & White (2012) asserts that, longer time in education and subsequent increment in labour market participation could provide youths, with greater opportunities. Mains (2007) differs with Naafs & White (2012) by stating that increased access to education accompanied with limited job opportunities can also be attributable to the increased youth unemployment.

On the other hand, Choudhry (2012) postulates that youth attitude towards certain jobs as shaped by the past school to work transitions trend that promised jobs for educated youth heightens the youth unemployment issue. Cole (2007) shares the same sentiments with Choudhry (2012) that youth's draw practices from the past into new circumstances without considering current situations. Furthermore, expectations of progress are heightened by greater access to education and perceived images of education as a strategy of moving up the social ladder, education has failed to realize young people's employment expectations (Dale, 2014).

Additionally, Dale (2014) stated that access to education has increased but the quality of the education has deteriorated and hence the value for education has decreased. Botswana has a large reservoir of graduates whose skills are not only questionable but have also been deemed by some scholars to be only suitable for working in the government sector. This is in line with Siphambe (2007) that there are issues with appropriateness of the education system given that unemployment exists in tandem with vacant posts.

In yet another study, Nthomang & Diraditsile (2016) stated that the government of Botswana has spent funds on short term underemployment and indecent quick fixes and unsustainable programmes with no impact on job creation. Often these investments have been on the education sector and on courses that were deemed to be profitable at the time. Maunganidze, Faimau, & Tapera (2016) note that, giving people additional education does not itself create jobs because jobs are created by government's job creation policies and not by expanding schools.

Noticeably, in the past decade, Botswana has witnessed a high proliferation of private tertiary institutions as a direct response to the government of Botswana (GoB)'s plea to private tertiary institutions to support the country's transition from being a resource-driven economy to a diversified economy that is characterized by a highly skilled knowledge-intensive service sector (Samboma, 2017). The enrolment of students to the private tertiary institutions has since increased by 0 in 2003/4 to 10,294 by 2007/8, an increase of 28.2% (Molutsi, 2009). The increase of student intake in Private Tertiary Institutions (PTI) can be associated with government sponsorship extended to the PTI. However, the government's objective of having a diversified economy has not been met since high unemployment, especially among the youth is still a major challenge (Modiakgotla, 2015). Worse still, these institutions of higher learning (colleges and universities) are of a questionable standard. In addition, Modiakgotla (2015) further stated that these institutions rely heavily on funding from the government, but their grandaunts are left to face a stiff competition, more so locally trying to secure a job.

Mogomotsi & Madigele (2017) are of the view that, the structure of post-mandatory professional education options, affects the youth labour market transition. A report by the African Development Bank (2011) elaborates that, the reason for high levels of youth unemployment even amongst those educated is because of the education system, for instance the curricula (including which fields of study are considered important) still derive from former colonial powers. The study further expresses concerns regarding the effectiveness of supply driven interventions such as vocational education, which receive very minimum attention as there is a widespread lack of support and acceptance of this type of training, not only by employers but also by the youth population. In this view, Motlaleng & Narayana (2014) point out that,

addressing skills mismatch is the best ways when pursuing vocational training to equip youth's with practical skills.

2.2.2 Skills mismatch

According to (AfDB, 2011) the concept of labour market mismatch refers to situations where new labour market entrants or the unemployed do not have the set of skills needed by employers who are hiring. Labour market mismatch contributes to unemployment, that is structural in nature and solving it needs to include a strategy that reconcile the demand and of human resource (Baatweng, 2015). Skills mismatch threatens the labour market, leading to unemployment as Barton, Farrell, & Mourshed (2013) notes.

In Ethiopia, Dale (2014) identified skills mismatch between knowledge acquired through formal education and skills required by the labour force as one of the main factors influencing unemployment. Carmeci & Mauro (2003) are of the view that young people are generally educated but lack the generic and job specific skills and work experience. In this view, Carmeci & Mauro note that education is not sufficiently preparing school leavers for the practical world of work, in terms of skills, attitudes and or expectations.

Studies by Nthomang & Diraditsile, 2016; Pheko & Molefhe, 2016; Gaetsewe, 2019 in Botswana indicates that, lack of experience and skills mismatch between supply and demand of labour have resulted in graduates who are trapped in the vicious cycle of youth unemployment. Over the past few years, government, the private sector and other stakeholders have been spending sleepless nights trying to find ways of amassing a pool of skilled workers who can match the demands of

industry (Baatweng, 2015). A growing complaint by the private sector is that there exist a mismatch of skills and the needs of the economy (ibid, 2015).

Migrant workers provide skilled knowledge in the professional fields (Mogomotsi & Madigele, 2017). A mismatch in skill therefore impacts on employability as the AFDB (2011) reports, hence explaining the phenomenon of skills mismatch and elaborating how many African countries manual skills, are often discredited and how practical skills that enhance employability are also not taken into serious consideration.

In yet another study, Barton, *et. al.*, (2013), suggests analysing skills development with a particular attention to the systems that link the transition between education and employment. Further, acknowledging that transmission or acquisition of skills is conducted through different routes and training takes many different modes and is provided by many different stakeholders, including vocational schools, universities, companies, industry associations, and local and national governments.

Notably, the heterogeneity of the key players in ensuring transmission of requisite skills has resulted in differences in understanding of the situation (Barton, *et. al.*, 2013). The study findings by Barton, *et. al.*, reveal that; employers, education providers and youths live in parallel universes, and this is exacerbated by the lack of communication between the education providers and the employers. A report on matching skills and labour market needs also highlighted that developing the educational-system responsiveness to labour market needs and ensuring that

students complete their schooling with skills needed to find work, require collaboration between employers and public authorities (Davos-Klosters, 2014).

The most successful education to employment structures is those that involve interaction between the educators and the employers such as creation of the syllabus and specifications of requisite skills (Barton, Farrell, & Mourshed, 2013). Along the same lines, a study conducted in Botswana that aimed at discovering the skill needs of the private sector found that a shortage of “employability” traits in the labour force is frequently cited as a major obstacle to private sector development (World Bank, 2014).

In the study the employers were requested to list the most important skills for an occupation, and they grouped them into one of three categories: personal characteristics, core skills, and job-specific skills. The applicants lacked different types of skills, depending on the occupation, but the most significant inadequacy is identified in the job-related skills of craft and related trade workers, as well as plant and machinery operator skills. This finding identified a clear weakness in the vocational and technical education system in Botswana.

2.2.3 Demographic factors

In the world, female youth tend to be disadvantage in jobs acquisition. Darwing a case of Americas, female in the youth bracket find it hard to acquire jobs in Germany, while male in the youth bracket get to be disadvantaged in the United Kingdom (Isengard, 2003).

Studies have shown that, young people in Botswana face higher unemployment rates than their older counterparts (O’Higgins, 2003). The extent to which unemployment affects them differs

according to various reasons, and may include personal attributes, that tend to increase or reduce the probability that a young person becomes unemployed. Moreover, in most countries female unemployment among the youth tends to be higher as compared to their male counterparts (O'higgins, 2012). Further, according to the United Nations, report of (2012) young women in most economies, suffer more from unemployment as opposed to their male counterparts.

A study by Siphambe (2007), stated that youth unemployment in Botswana was more severe among female youth at 48% as compared to their male counterparts at 34.6%. Siphambe focused on understanding the unemployment dynamics adopting an estimated probit model of 1995/96 Labor Force Survey data, that revealed that females are more likely to be unemployed than males, with being male getting to increase the probability of being employed by 0.082.

In Tanzania being male made a youth person about 4% less likely to be unemployed, over being employed (Msigwa, 2003). Therefore, noting that males have a higher likelihood of being employed than females. Similarly, the findings presented in previous studies in Germany according to Isengard (2003) and in South Africa by Mlatsheni & Rospabe (2002) supported the view that gender was a determinant of unemployment. These previous studies agreements that female youth were discriminated hence male youth had a high chance of being employed than female youth. Additionally, Siphambe (2003) revealed that, age, gender and education have been identified as major determinants of unemployment. Individuals being younger than the reference age group used (between 26 and 35 years) are more likely to be unemployed due to the lack of skills and work experience needed in the labor market. That is the chances of finding

employment increases as one becomes older or ages because associated with more skills, training and work experience.

Kassa (2011), examined the determinants of unemployment and its impacts in the urban areas of Ethiopia. Using the Binary Probit Model to establish determinants of unemployment and Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) to examine impacts of unemployment at household level, it was noted that unemployment decreases with increasing age, marriage and attainment of secondary to tertiary education, while increasing with residing in urban areas.

Notably, the locale where young people reside impacted on their job search outcome, with those residing in urban areas rendered about five times more likely to be unemployed, over being employed (ibid,2011). The employment and unemployment variances indicate that it is easy for the youth to be employed in rural areas, than in urban areas especially in agriculture sector due to the informal nature of employment in rural areas (Msigwa, 2003). In Urban areas youth are more constrained by formal employment requirements such as; education, skills and experience which most of them do not poses.

Msingwa & Kipesha (2013), examined the determinants of youth unemployment in Tanzania and mapping a way to curb the problem. The study employed a multinomial logistic regression model (MLM) in analyzing the determinants of unemployment in Tanzania. Findings of the study suggest that gender, geographical location, education, skills and marital status are significant factors explaining the differences in employment status among youths in terms of gender.

2.3 The Magnitude of Youth Unemployment: African Region

As mentioned earlier on, Africa is a vast continent made up of more than 50 nation states, with different political situations, social and economic circumstances. Therefore, generalizing the African continent only stands to perpetuate negative stereotype about the African region. However, there is one common aspect when it comes to the situation of youth in African region. According to AfDB (2010) a major feature of Africa's youthful population is the emergence of a demographic explosion, a reference to the region's high population growth rate, estimated at about 3% per annum. With more than two-thirds of its population under 25 years in 2010, Sub-Saharan Africa is the youngest region in the world, providing reservoirs of change, progress and social dynamism (AfDB, 2010). Likewise, more than 20% of the region's population or 200 million people are classified as "Youth", aged between 15 and 24 years.

The rapid growth of Africa's population has developed into a phenomenon acknowledged as a "*Youth bulge*", interpreted as a population profile with a high proportion of youth. Consequently, it is projected that by 2024, Africa's youth population is expected to double. Nonetheless, Marelli et al (2011) argues that, the socio-economic profile of Africa's youth is sobering. Similarly, ILO (2013) notes that, on average, about 72% of Africa's youth population lives on less than US\$2 per day. The incidence of poverty in many African nations such as Zambia, Uganda, Nigeria, Burundi and Ethiopia, among other African nations, is estimated at 80% (ILO, 2013).

Into the bargain, Igbatayo & Babalola (2014) argues that, since fertility rates are yet to decline in Africa in line with the trend in other regions, the region cannot benefit from a demographic dividend in the near future. They further stated that, the youth population is expected to remain at 20% of the population for the next couple of decades and will make up 30% of the working age population through about 2045. That being said, International Labour Organization projects a stable unemployment rate for Africa's youth at 12% through 2018, a rate well below the world average (ILO, 2012).

Additionally, despite current trend in Africa's demographic profile, indications are the continent's population is trending towards stability, placing several African countries in a position to reap the demographic dividend, which arises when the share of the working population grows faster than the number of dependents being children and the elderly. Social commentators and various studies project that Africa is set to benefit from an imminent demographic dividend, which may increase the size and proportion of the working age population and trigger a high rate of economic growth (Page, 2012). Similarly, fertility in Sub-Saharan Africa may also decline from 6 children per woman in 1990, to 3 children by 2030 and less than 2.5 by 2050.

Most countries in Africa are also projected to have more working age adults per child in 2030 than they did in 2006 (Page, 2012). Furthermore, contemporary African population profile features what demographers aptly describe as an 'expansive' population pyramid, characterized by greater numbers of people in the younger age categories. This development is further

affirmation of Africa's youthful population structure. There is now a consensus that Africa is experiencing an emergent youth bulge, defined as an extraordinarily large youth cohort relative to the adult population (World Bank, 2012).

2.3.1 The Challenges of Inclusive Growth and Youth Unemployment in Africa

It is worth noting that African economies have shown resilience over the past decade, becoming the second fastest growing region in the world over the past decade (MGI, 2012). Noticeably, Aggregate GDP growth in the African region has averaged 5% in the past decade, despite the onslaught of the global economic crisis, which emerged with the collapse of the sub-prime mortgage market in the United States in 2007, triggering a worldwide economic recession acknowledge as the most severe in the past seventy years.

While the economic downturn has dampened growth around the world, economies in Sub-Saharan Africa have buckled the trend, showing an aggregate growth, estimates at 4.7% in 2012. Excluding South Africa, the region's largest economy, the remaining economies grew at a robust 5.8% higher than the developing country average of 4.9% (World Bank, 2012). About a quarter of countries in the region grew at 7% or better, and several African countries are ranked amongst the fastest growing in the world.

Nonetheless, economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa has failed to generate employment in many countries in the region, a development that is attributed to the lack of inclusive growth. The lack of inclusive growth in several African economies has marginalized the poor, preventing them from contributing to, or benefiting from, growth. Evidence abounds that several reports

have blamed the lack of inclusive growth in Africa on the region's extreme reliance on a narrow band of primary commodities for the bulk of government revenue and foreign exchange earning (UNECA, 2011; ERA, 2012). Most African exports exist in the form of primary commodities, with little added value. However, primary commodities are particularly notorious for incessant price volatility, which render several African countries vulnerable to the vagaries of global price movements.

Igbatayo & Babalola (2014) argues that in several African economies, the extractive industry is an enclave economy, with little linkage to other sectors. Therefore, relatively high growth often associated with the extractive industries cannot trickle down to the other sectors of the economy. Furthermore, recent reports acknowledge that the growth of employment in an economy often depends on sectoral composition of employment, sectoral growth rates and the output elasticity of employment in the various sectors.

The implication is that employment growth in an economy depends on the aggregate growth rate, as well as sectoral composition of aggregate growth. Accordingly, in the case of African economies, the agricultural sector contributes about one third to the region's GDP and accounts for more than 50% of employment (Igbatayo & Babalola, 2014). On the flip side, the extractive sectors employ less than 10% of the workforce but growing at more than 10% per annum in recent years; while agriculture, manufacturing and the services sectors, which account for more than 60% of employment, grew at less than 2.5% in the last two decades (Ibid, 2014).

2.3.2 The emergent crisis of youth unemployment in Africa

Evidence abounds in explaining the determinants of youth unemployment in Botswana. Notably, the lack of inclusive growth in Africa, despite the region's accelerated growth trajectory in the past decade has fuelled a development crisis across the African continent. The worrisome trend has manifested in growing inequality and widespread poverty in several countries. The trend has also manifested in social instability, particularly in conflict prone countries. Kapunda & Moffat (2014) notes that, widespread unemployment amongst Africa's youth has been blamed for social instability in many African countries.

The share of Africa's unemployed youth, estimated at 60% of the total unemployed across the African region can be as high as 83% in Uganda, 68% in Zimbabwe, and 56% in Burkina Faso (Igbatayo & Babalola, 2014). There is however a gender disparity in the distribution of unemployment rates across Africa, with a labour force participation rate of 78.3% for men against 61% for women (WB, 2012). Nonetheless, female participation is much higher in West Africa, estimated around 80% in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Burundi, Gambia, Guinea and lower in East Africa, fewer than 40% in Ethiopia, Uganda, Malawi and Kenya.

It can be argued that rapid urbanization has emerged as a factor in the youth unemployment situation, as urban areas continue to attract the rural youth but remain incapable of creating employment. Motlaleng & Narayana (2014); Igbatayo & Babalola (2014) notes that, youth unemployment rates in Africa are three times higher in urban areas compared to rural areas; rural dwellers migrate to urban areas in search of livelihood opportunities, which they often find to be

non-existent. Despite the lure of commercial opportunities associated with urban centers, rural Africa remains home to the majority of the region's population and/or 70% of the people (AfDB, 2013).

Noticeably, the informal sector has equally emerged as the main provider of jobs for the youth population. According to a study conducted by AfDB (2012), the informal sector has provided the livelihood source for the youth to make out a living. Furthermore, 81.4% of the youth in Ethiopia worked in the informal sector in 2005 (compared to 43% for adults) and 12.5% were self-employed (compared to 49.6% for adults). Based on the study results, only about 10% of the active population was employed in the nation's formal sector. Moreover, employment in the non-agricultural informal sector has almost doubled from 22% in 1990 to 42% and indications are that the trend is set to expand in Sub-Saharan Africa. Various studies have also affirmed that the majority of young people working in urban informal sector live in slum areas.

According to Igbatayo & Babalola (2014) Africa's youth have emerged as a vibrant and dynamic segment of society, estimated at 20% or 198 million people, aged between 15 to 24 years. The demographic profile of Africa's population presents a phenomenon known as a "*Youth Bulge*", defined as a population with high proportion of the youth. Notably, while Africa's economy has rebounded over the past decade, with an average annual growth estimated at 5% and a sharp contrast to decades of stagnation and instability, the emergent growth has failed to transform the livelihoods of Africa's youthful population.

Based on the foregoing, youth unemployment has therefore emerged as a contemporary challenge in many African countries. As a result, the situation threatens the political stability and peace of many countries in Africa. For instance, in South Africa, Zimbabwe and Ethiopia, landlessness in rural areas and rapid urbanization has been apportioned to rising youth unemployment in the nation. Still in Ethiopia and elsewhere in the African continent, there is a substantial body of evidence indicated that youth unemployment in recent times was slightly higher than the national average at 8% for youth aged between 15 to 24 years and 7% for youth aged between 15 to 29 years. On the other hand, taking a closer look at Nigeria, youth unemployment has assumed a problematic dimension and it is estimated to be at 24%, with high incidence considerably higher, at 38% for youth aged between 15 to 24 years (Igbatayo & Babalola, 2014).

2.4 Major determinants of youth unemployment: Botswana context

Evidence abounds to the fact that when Botswana gained independence in 1996, the country was one of the poorest countries in the world and depended mainly on foreign assistance and cattle farming for economic growth (In Durham, et. al., 2017). Notwithstanding, the remarkable economic growth, propelled by diamond mining and sales over the past five decades, Botswana is facing a huge challenge in the form of unemployment, particularly, youth unemployment.

According to Statistics Botswana (2013) overall unemployment in the age group of 15-45 is estimated at 25%. In the age groups 15-19 and 20-24, unemployment is estimated at 41.4% and 34% respectively (SB, 2013). Official statistics also reveal that most informal sector employees

fall within these age groups. An estimated 66.8% of informal sector employees (excluding business owners) are reported to be in the age group of 20-34 (SB, 2009). There is a substantial body of evidence from the scholarly literature showing that most informal sector participants go into these activities out of lack of options and a need to make a living. Moreover, research has also shown that often, informal activities do not constitute decent work as embraced in the ILO decent work agenda. Therefore, based on the foregoing, for an upper middle-income economy, with a relatively small population estimated to be 2 million, the reported unemployment and poverty rates are quite high, and this is an issue of major concern.

Unemployment has attracted different connotations, that broadly and narrowly measure the rates that differ very markedly in most countries, and the measure chosen to be the official unemployment rate affects perceptions about the extent of the problem (Kingdon & Knight, 2010). Further, Kingdon & Knight, indicate that the appropriate measure unemployment rate, depends on the desire of the unemployed dormant job seekers being regarded as part of the economically active population.

In that view, Kingdon & Knight (2010) asserts that unemployment has economic costs; that reduce economic well-being, lowers output, and leads to loss of skills. Additionally, it also has social costs that lead to loss of status and respect, deterioration in family life, and it fosters grievance and cynicism which may be responsible for the supposed link between unemployment and crime. These costs might be some of the reasons why unemployment is normally a high priority policy objective for most governments around the globe.

The International Conference of Labour Statisticians defines a person as unemployed if she/he meets all the following three conditions, inter alia: (a) is without work (b) is available for work (c) seeking for work (Nthomang & Diraditsile, 2016). Notably, this definition is time bound and refers to the reference period of time. Guided by this definition, the International Labour Organisation found that there were approximately 75.1 million young people struggling to find work around the world at the end of 2010 (ILO, 2012).

Apparently, while a range of measures or definitions of unemployment are possible, two rates: *the broad* and *the narrow* are most frequently considered (Kingdon & Knight, 2010). The narrowly defined unemployed comprise of jobless persons who looked for a job in a given time period, typically the week or month prior to the survey. The broadly defined unemployed include the narrowly unemployed and those who wanted work but did not look for it in the reference period. Remarkably, the usefulness of a certain measure of unemployment (broad or narrow) varies from country to country. It depends on the costs and benefits of job search in the labour market. Any measure chosen by a government as the best indicator will presumably depend on how well the measure performs its various internal functions.

Based on the diverse government indicators, different measures may be chosen by different countries, and another function of unemployment statistics – namely *international comparability of labour and economic conditions* is thereby undermined (ILO, 2012). The International Labour Organization recommends on narrow measures of unemployment adoption for the sake of objectivity and international comparability recognizing the narrow measure of unemployment, where the conventional means of seeking work are of limited relevance, labour markets are

largely unorganized or of limited scope, labour absorption is inadequate and where the labour force is largely self-employed .

To a great extent, in the context of Botswana, both the narrow and broad definitions of unemployment are used and measured. The narrow definition apart from other advantages provides a basis for comparison with other countries while the broad definition provides a much more realistic picture of the actual underutilization of labour especially with relatively high youth unemployment rates that increase discouraged worker effect. Given Botswana's circumstances, this doctoral dissertation therefore adopted both narrow and broad definition of unemployment.

2.4.1 Overview of Botswana youth labour

The data from Statistics Botswana (2011) shows that out of 2,024,904 people living in Botswana about 941 371 (46.5%) were youth. In comparison to other countries in the Sub-Saharan region, Botswana's youth population is not striking, however because of its position as an upper middle income country it is. More than one-third of the Botswana's population is under 15, almost 60% higher than the average for such countries. The World Bank (2014) indicates that the ratio of the working age (15-64) to non-working age population in Botswana is expected to rise by 64%, from 1.42 to 2.34 between 2000 and 2040. Additionally, the report indicates that an estimation of around 15000 young Batswana reaching working age annually over the next 10-15 years will put the government under immense pressure to create employment opportunities.

2.4.2 Features of youth unemployment in Botswana

There is a plethora of literature explaining the causes of youth unemployment in Africa and elsewhere around the globe. Evidently, it can be argued that many of the root causes of unemployment cut across different borders. Nonetheless, some causes that are relevant for Botswana context are discussed below:

2.4.3 Educational attainment and youth unemployment

Siphambe (2007) and Pheko & Molefhe (2016) note that, the most challenging unemployment problems are experienced by the unemployment of youth with primary and secondary education. Siphambe's findings indicated that young people with tertiary education qualifications are least affected by unemployment. Notably, a recent study by Diraditsile & Ontetse (2017) further confirms this notion as they pointed out that unemployment tends to differ with education attainment.

2.4.4 Youth unemployment and place of residence

According to the African Economic Outlook (2007) report for Botswana, unemployment is highest in urban villages (25%), followed by rural areas (18%) and lowest in urban towns (16%). However, Kemiso & Kolawole (2017) contradicts this argument by positing that rural youth unemployment in Botswana (which manifests mainly in the forms of structural, disguised or hidden unemployment) is of great concern because many people reside in the countryside than in urban centres. The Statistics Botswana (2013) reported that districts having high youth

unemployment rate above 30% and higher contribution to total unemployment are Kweneng East, Southern District, Barolong, Kgalagadi South and Ngamiland East, which has a high working age population share of 4.2%.

2.4.5 Mis-education and skills-mismatch

In 1966 when Botswana gained its independence, lack of skilled and educated Batswana was one of the most eminent challenges on development (Sebudubudu, 2015). From independence to the present situation the government of Botswana has had to invest intensely in education (Pheko & Molefhe, 2017). As a result, there has been a large increase in the number of graduates from all levels of schooling, some of whom are unable to find jobs in the labour market. There is now an increasing unemployment among those who have graduated from university (Bosupeng 2015).

Government reports in Botswana indicate that, the main challenge faced by youth is shortage of skills, low levels of education and skills mismatch, according to the Statistics Botswana (2013). For instance, report states that, many young people in Botswana leave school without the requisite skills and competencies needed in today's economy. In this view, Pheko, *et. al.*, (2016) notes that, the first-generation university grandaunts have a higher probability of finishing school without certain employability skills, due to lack of professional mentors and referees to assist in developing employability skills. Therefore, to achieve desired goals in skills development; stakeholders, sponsors, tertiary institutions and private sector must take part in developing training models (Motlaleng & Narayana, 2014).

Nthomang & Diraditsile (2016) further explained that young people find themselves jobless because of lack of work experience and practical skills. This statement is further supported in a report by HRDC (2015) that there is an oversupply of training for white collar jobs at the expense of vocational skills and these results in skills mismatch in the economy. Keetile (2014) also concerted that despite efforts by the government, Botswana is facing a challenge of limited skilled workers. Moreover, Statistics Botswana (2011) asserts that, Botswana depends on migrant workers to fill the skills gaps in many professions in the country.

These include skill shortages (especially entrepreneurial skills), poor attitudes towards work that contribute to low productivity and lack of funds to start up a business (AEO, 2007). More often than not, many Botswana youths who trained in colleges and universities remain largely unemployed perhaps due to a mismatch between the skills they acquired and job placement requirements (Broussard & Tekleselassie, 2012) and the incessant downturn in private businesses.

2.5 Mitigating Factors to Address Youth Unemployment in Botswana

The Government of Botswana (GoB) is set out to ensure that the youth received opportunities to realise their potential through employment (GoB, 2010). This is a roadmap that sets way back to 1996, when the Botswana parliament passed the National Youth Policy that fell under the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs. The policy was revised in 2010 under the new Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture (MYSC) (GoB, 2010).

According to the GoB (2010) the National Youth Policy is guided by an Action Plan who's brief, inter alia, includes addressing issues around youth unemployment. This policy recognizes the important contribution the youth make to the socio-economic development objectives of any given country. The policy also asserts that the youth need to contribute optimally to sustainable national development and growth. Furthermore, the policy is designed to mainstream youth activities and contributions and highlight youth issues and/or concerns as critical input in the development process of the nation (Diraditsile, 2017).

Youth unemployment poses a major development challenge to Botswana despite the impressive economic growth rates being posted by the Country (Orukut, 2013). In 2015, the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture developed a document on affirmative action in favour of the youth, to remove bottlenecks for youth empowerment, identifying and extending a number of business-related exemptions to the youth (GoB, 2015). Apart from the directives alluded to above; the Government of Botswana has over the last few decades designed a number of specific interventions that targeted youth. These included the National Internship Programme (NIP), the Youth Development Fund (YDF) and the Young Farmers Fund (YFF). Let us briefly consider each of the initiatives in question.

In order to address the persisting youth unemployment, the government has introduced initiatives that were intended to ease the situation. However, it is worth noting that the responses to the plight of the youth in Botswana have always taken the form of policy and programme formulation (Nthomang et al., 2016). Since the 1990s, the dominant philosophy and official

thinking on youth unemployment has been one of the government-led policy and programme initiatives and execution of these interventions by government officials.

According to Diraditsile (2017) and Diraditsile & Maphula (2018) some of the youth unemployment interventions includes: inter alia, National Youth Policy of 1996 (Revised in 2010); Young Farmers Fund (YFD); Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES); Youth Development Fund (YDF); Botswana National Service Programme (BNSP); Kick Start Programme (KSP); Arts and Culture Grants (ACG); Graduate Volunteer Scheme (GVS); Back to School Programme (BSP). For the purpose of this doctoral dissertation only a few programmes are briefly discussed below.

2.5.1 The Young Farmers Fund (2004)

The government of Botswana acknowledges the plight of the youth and fully appreciates the opportunities farming can create in terms of employment generation and contributing to the economic development of the country. As such, this programme is specifically designed to provide financial assistance in the form of subsidized loans to young people aged between 18 and 35 years of age who wish to venture into viable and sustainable agricultural projects. As per one of the requirements to obtain to be financed, an applicant has to demonstrate that they have received relevant training in what they wish to undertake and complete a business proposal which is then adjudicated by relevant officers in charge of the programme. In 2015, this programme was transformed and broadened to include any other businesses not necessarily farming, and it was named Youth Entrepreneurial Fund.

The Young Farmers Fund (YFF) involves providing graduates from agricultural colleges with funds to start sustainable self-employment jobs in the agricultural sector (Williams & Hovorka, 2013). The fund provides agricultural loans to start sustainable agricultural projects in an effort to tackle youth unemployment. The YFF is managed by officers from Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA), established by the Government of Botswana to provide financial and technical support for business development, with a view to promoting viable and sustainable citizen owned business enterprises.

According to Botswana Guardian (2015), by 2015, the fund had, assisted a total of 594 businesses at a total of P 238 000 000 and had managed to create about 2000 job opportunities. The Fund however, has had its own share of challenges. The biggest challenge is that it would appear many young people in Botswana have no interest in labour intensive programmes such as agriculture and as such the fund had a low uptake. The Fund has since come under scrutiny with some legislators calling for its transformation into a Youth Entrepreneurship Fund so that instead of focusing only on agriculture, the Fund could accommodate a diversity of youth businesses such as Information and Communication Technology (ICT), fashion, entertainment, leatherworks and tourism.

Other than that, youth can also benefit from capacity building in entrepreneurship through an organisation called the Local Enterprise Authority (LEA) which helps individuals start and manage sustainable projects to provide both income and self-employment opportunities. LEA's mandate is to service the general populace and not specifically the youth, although they (youth)

too can access its services. The capacity building component is meant to enhance beneficiaries' capacity to grow their enterprise in a sustainable manner.

2.5.2 The National Internship Programme (2009)

Internship programme targets graduate youth from tertiary institutions. The programme is meant to tackle the problem of youth unemployment in Botswana by helping graduates acquire hands on experience from various professionals in different organizations across Botswana. With an enrolment of 4104, in March 30th, 2020, the internship programme is drawing accolades as it attracts criticism. It offers graduates a period of practical experience in the industry relating to their field of study. Ideally, internship experience was meant to prepare interns for the world of work or self-employment (Bakwena, & Sebudubudu, 2016). It exposes them to the world of work and gives them practical experience in the work environment. Further, the programme provides an opportunity for graduates to learn by doing, which is “on the job training”.

It should be pointed out that, it's difficult to determine the extent to which the internship programme has delivered on set objectives, the programme does not have an in-built monitoring and evaluation framework, in particular, preparation of interns for the world of work and self-employment. Strikingly, in the absence of monitoring and evaluation, it is difficult to make an informed determination on the success or failure of the programme in attaining set objectives and targets. However, critics believe it failed but only succeeded in so far as to provide temporary exploitative employment for very few young people (Diraditsile, 2017). Further, most young

people enrolled in the programme are not gaining sufficient professional training and skills due to weak mentoring and job shadowing arrangements.

The National Internship Programme involves placement of unemployed graduates in government and private sector organisations to enable them to acquire skills to enhance their chances of getting permanent employment. In particular, there is emphasis on institutional financing to provide young people with access to finance to facilitate self-employment activities and entrepreneurial skills development (GoB, 2009). Degree and Diploma holders are placed for a period of 24 months to gain on-the-job skills, and during the placement period interns receive a monthly allowance (MLHA, 2011).

The NIP was set up to offer unemployed citizen graduates an opportunity to develop work skills and experience that will support them in the transition from school life to the world of work. This would be realized through attachments to various agencies by enhancing the targeted group's employability. However, the NIP has not been without its fair share of criticisms. Some critics have alleged the setting up of the programme was politically motivated hence it was doomed. This accusation relates to the fact that the programme was launched ahead of crucial national elections that occurred in 2009 (Diraditsile, 2017). Some have peddled claims that most young people who are involved in the programme have not gained sufficient professional training and skills due to weak monitoring and job shadowing arrangements (Nthomang et al., 2016).

Nonetheless, individuals who advance such arguments fail to appreciate the bigger picture. The fact is, despite the shortcomings alluded to; the NIP undoubtedly provides short term relief in

minimizing the impact of youth unemployment in Botswana. The programme has provided positive outcomes in terms of job progression. Between 2008 and 2014, 8758 graduates were offered an internship and 6358 (which is 73%) were offered permanent positions (Bakwena & Sebudubudu, 2016). Moreover, between 2014 and 2017, a total of 6453 graduates were registered in the programme, and 2418 (38%) of them got temporary or permanent employment (Statistics Botswana, 2017). Undeniably, the foregoing shows that the programme has had some impact.

2.5.3 The Youth Development Fund (2009)

The Youth Development Fund was introduced in the 2009/10 financial year following the Out of School Youth Programme (OSYP) which started in the 2000/01 financial year. It is a program aimed at empowering youth to own businesses and create sustainable employment opportunities for young people and it is executed through the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development. Its main objective is to promote active participation of youth in the socio-economic development of the country. It targets the youth between the ages of 18 and 35 who are not in school or employed, underemployed and youth who have no academic background.

The YDF funding is 50% grant and 50% interest free loan of the total approved amount. The funding ceiling is P100, 000. Beneficiaries benefit only once under the fund and are expected to graduate and utilize other financial intermediaries to expand and to grow their establishments. Notably, according to MYSC (2017) more than 3000 young people have benefited from the

initiative across the country and have created employment opportunities for their peers since 2009.

Conspicuously, this measure was established mainly to support entrepreneurship among the youth, as it was realized that the inability or difficulty that young people face to access credit was an obstacle for those who were aspiring to start their own enterprises and it was proving to be an obstacle that was surely killing the entrepreneurship spirit among the youth. The fund promotes entrepreneurship development and self-employment which in turn acts as a direct means through which the talents and resources of young people can be used to address the problem of youth unemployment.

According to Nthomang et al (2016) this fund is a clear indication that the government has the political will of addressing the issue of youth unemployment. Thus, its tireless effort of promoting citizen owned enterprises by the youth and going to the lengths of even equipping beneficiaries with necessary skills that are essential to ensure business success, irrespective of the fact that, Youth Development Fund (YDF) projects have been experiencing failures. The failures have been attributed to lack of commitment by project owners, conflicting interests of beneficiaries, market penetration, limited business management and technical skills and high and unsustainable rentals.

It is worth to highlight that, there are two categories of enterprises through which the funds for the facility can be availed. One category is funding in the region of P50 000 to P100 000 per project for Micro- and Small- Scale Enterprises. Another category is for Medium Scale

Enterprises, with funding ranging from P101 000 to P450 000 per project (MYSC, 2014). As mentioned earlier on this fund is a clear indication that the government has the political will to address the issue of youth unemployment thus its tireless effort in promoting citizen-owned youth enterprises and going to the lengths of even equipping beneficiaries with the necessary skills that are essential for ensuring business success (Mupedziswa et al., forthcoming). According to the AfDB (2016) disbursement to the fund has progressively risen from P 3 million in 2005 to P60 million in 2010; doubling to P120 million in 2011.

In the year 2016/17, some 735 youth projects were funded (Government of Botswana, 2017). The funding was consistent with the provisions of the Economic Diversification Drive, which calls for the creation of an entrepreneurial culture among the country's youth. One key challenge faced by the fund is resource shortage to finance the youth projects. Further, in some cases youths have expressed concern that, their ideas have floated, ending up in wrong hands, alongside the long-time effect of the turnaround time from submission of application to receiving the funds (Diraditsile, Hamaluba & Mokoka, 2019).

There is too much red tape surrounding access to funding, although youths receive some training (Pansiri & Yalala, 2017). Concern has been expressed to the effect that, the orientation period is rather too short and also that they end up being thrown into the deep end. In some cases it is reported that, no proper ownership exists of the 'letter and spirit' of particular projects given that some youth use consultants to draw up 'bankable' project proposals on their behalf even if their (the youth's) own hearts may not be in the particular project as Pansiri & Yalala (2017) notes.

According to Williams, 2012; Diraditsile & Maphula, 2018; Diraditsile, Hamaluba & Mokoka, 2019 YDF funded projects experience high failure rate. The failure is due to various reasons which include lack of commitment on the part of some project owners, challenges with market penetration, limited business management and technical skills and high unsustainable rentals.

2.5.4 Botswana National Service Programme (2014)

The Botswana National Service Programme (BNSP), is a youth empowerment initiative administered by the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development launched in April 2014. The initiative was introduced primarily to promote the spirit of voluntarism among the youth and to inculcate a sense of patriotism and duty to serve one's community. It targets people aged between 20 and 30 with qualifications ranging from ordinary primary school leaving certificate, brigade and trade qualifications to certificate level as this cohort is hit hard by unemployment. The programme kick started with an initial intake of 15000 participants. As of March 30th 2020, there were 12933 participants in the entire programme.

It is worth to highlight that the participants serve a minimum of one year with an option of a shorter period and a maximum term of service is up until a participant reaches the age of 30. Botswana national service programme represents a significant mechanism for the participation of young people in national development and it offers an opportunity for youth who have low qualifications to play a part in the development of their communities (MYSC, 2014). However, it is worth to highlight that, this is a short-term measure of dealing with youth unemployment on

the grounds that, it does not ensure direct employment and it does not provide a permanent solution to the plight of youth unemployment

2.5.5 Graduate Volunteer Scheme (2015)

This is a newly introduced scheme targeting graduate youth who are unemployed but are also not in the Internship programme. The Graduate Volunteer Scheme (GVS) was introduced to attach young graduates in organisations that have opportunities for volunteer work. It is intended to; facilitate skills development and transfer to young graduates, contribute to community development, promote the spirit of volunteerism, improve resilience of the graduate youth and reduce idle time. Participants are placed in government and public institutions, including the disciplined forces.

This is intended to improve the reach of the disciplined forces to communities. Each participant receives a meal allowance of P600.00 and is given priority for placement in the Botswana National Internship Programme if they are in the Internship waiting list. In addition, this initiative is one of the many short-term implementations that try to curb youth unemployment in Botswana by giving the youth a platform to gain skills and job shadowing experience which will help them against idleness. Noticeably, many social commentators and scholars point out that the government has clearly demonstrated that it is fatigued and clueless in addressing topical national issues.

The government through the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development introduced the graduate volunteer scheme targeting graduate youth who are unemployed and not in the national internship programme. The scheme was intended to facilitate skills development and transfer to graduates, contribute to community development as well as encourage the spirit of volunteerism among the youth. The graduates are placed in different government departments where they can enhance their job readiness skills through on-the-job training. The graduates enrolled in this scheme also received priority for the national internship programme if they were on the waiting list (GoB, 2015). On this note, the present enrolment (as at 30th March 2020) of the programme stands at 263.

The programme was however, criticised apparently because, according to critics, it was now being used by both the government and the private sector for recycling interns without giving them permanent jobs and promoting young graduates' exploitation through using the graduates as qualified cheap labour (Diraditsile, 2017). However, proponents of the scheme believe it had made enormous contribution to reducing unemployment.

2.5.6 Arts and Culture Programmes in Botswana

This department houses the following programmes: Celebrations and Commemorations, Arts Competitions, Arts and Culture Grant, Cultural Exchange, Marketing of Arts and Crafts, Research on Arts and Culture and Visual Art Exhibitions.

2.5.6.1 President's Day Competitions

These competitions were introduced in 2008 by the former President of the Republic of Botswana Lt General Seretse Khama Ian Khama. The competitions cover different artistic codes; inter alia, music, dance, theatre, drama, comedy, poetry, basketry, sculpting, fine art, drawing and others. Moreover, the competitions are not only meant to address the issue of poverty, but also to curb idleness of youth in various communities across the country. It starts with mini festivals that are held in conjunction with Arts Associations around the country to select participants to the main competitions to be held in Gaborone (the capital city of Botswana) yearly in July.

2.5.6.2 Arts and Culture Heritage

- *Celebrations and Commemorations* - Languages Day and Culture Day
- *Competitions* - Constituency Art Competitions and President's Day Competitions
- *Arts and Culture Grant: to develop the arts & culture industry (performing arts, visual arts, literary works)*
- *Cultural Exchange*
- *Marketing of Arts and Crafts* - Cultural Centres, National and International expositions and exhibitions, publications

2.5.6.3 Arts and Culture Grant

- This is the empowerment of Arts and Culture practitioners through grants for projects and programmes, and procurement of their works.

2.5.6.4 Cultural Exchange

- It provides young people with an opportunity for launching artistic careers through cultural exchange.

2.5.6.5 Visual Art Exhibitions

- National ART, Basket and Craft Exhibitions, Botswana National Art Fair (BONAFI) Young Artists exhibitions in collaboration with the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, Nna le Seabe HIV and AIDS exhibition and drama group tours in collaboration with National Aids Coordinating Agency (NACA).

2.5.6.6 Pitso ya Ngwao

The Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture hosts Pitso ya Ngwao annually to discuss issues pertaining to arts and culture in general. The primary objective of the Pitso was to create a meeting place where the diverse customers of the sector have an opportunity to give feedback on the services being provided to them by the MYSC. The target participants often include Members of Parliament, Ntlo ya Dikgosi, archival organisations, artists and arts associations, parastatals, private business entities, foreign diplomatic missions, United Nations Agencies, government ministries, researchers, civil society, traditional leaders, media houses, arts and culture practitioners and donor agencies. The resolutions reached covered advocacy, funding legal policy framework and capacity building.

2.5.7 Sports and Recreation Programmes in Botswana

It is worth to note that, the Department of Sport and Recreation was established in 1997 with a view to advice Government on Sport and Recreation issues. Having realized that the value of Sport and Recreation, the main focal point charged with the responsibility of facilitating and ensuring the development and implementation of national policies and strategies on sport and recreation in the country in liaison with all agencies charged with the responsibility of sport policy implementation.

The Government and people of Botswana accept the premise that participation in sport and physical recreation can significantly contribute to the quality of life and the development as well as the reputation of the country. Sport and Recreation can play a major role in enhancing the physical, mental, emotional development and social interaction skills both among the youth and adult alike.

2.5.8 Legislative and policy frameworks in the sports sector

The Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture in collaboration with the office of the Attorney General, has drafted Sport Commission Bill and submitted it to the Cabinet for consideration. The Bill has gone through the second reading at parliament. The Bill seeks to repeal the Botswana National Sports Council Act and establish an umbrella body that will rationalize the functions of the Department of Sport and Recreation, Botswana National Sports Council and Botswana National Olympic Committee. The Bill also seeks to remove duplicities between the

three (3) sport agencies for efficient utilization of resources. The Botswana National Sports Commission will align Botswana sport to international best practices that generally govern the administration and management of sport and recreation worldwide.

2.5.8.1 Annual District Sports Festivals (ADSF)

This is a programme targeting all Districts and Sub-Districts with a view to promote mass participation or Sport for all. It is based on the premise that sport plays an important role in education, health and community development as well as enhancing national identity and pride. The programme is aimed at ensuring that all citizens are continuously provided with opportunities to be involved in sport and physical recreation in order to enable them to realize their full potential and improve their quality of life. During the festival all people irrespective of age, gender and physical ability are encouraged to participate in an activity of their choice.

2.5.8.2 Constituency Sports Tournament (CST)

The implementation of Constituency Tournaments started in July 2008, with the following objectives in mind: to keep youth meaningfully engaged; to combat social ills such as alcohol abuse and crime; mass participation in sport for leisure, fitness, social engagement and recreation; to create an opportunity for expansion of talent identification and development; to contribute to economic empowerment of youth. Noticeably, participants in the programme are those forty (40) years and below. It is principally meant for those who are out of school.

However, a limited number of youth in employment are illegible to participate. It is worth to note that participation in these tournaments continues to grow with the competitions.

2.5.8.3 Centres of Sport Excellence (CSE)

The Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development, in collaboration with the Ministry of Basic Education, and the Ministry of Tertiary Education undertook to establish Centres for sport excellence in some selected schools around the country. The Centres were meant for provision of support amenities in the form of sport equipment, facilities and human resources to junior and senior secondary school. The sport codes piloted are volleyball, football, netball, athletics, boxing, karate and softball. However, it is worth to highlight that, there are challenges which include inadequate sport fields and shortage of coaches as well as the need to upgrade boarding facilities in all the centers especially junior secondary schools.

2.5.8.4 Junior Sports Programme (JSP)

This is a national sporting initiative committed to the development of young people through sport. The Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development assists in reviewing, monitoring and evaluation.

2.5.8.5 Re Ba Bona Ha (RBBH)

Re Ba Bona Ha is a grassroots sport development programme which was piloted in 2002 before being launched as a fully-fledged programme in 2003. It develops young athletes' techniques (aged 5-17 years) to identify talent and to augment efforts of the affiliates of Botswana National Sports Council in establishing youth teams. The programme has fifty-nine (59) centers throughout the country. Ten (10) sporting codes which take part in the programme are; athletics, basketball, boxing, chess, cricket, football, karate, rugby, softball and volleyball.

2.5.8.5 Botswana Games

The programme involves selecting and preparing youth teams for major events such as SCSA Zone VI Under 20 Youth Games. Sport administrators, coaches and officials provided with exposure for hosting mega international events.

2.6 Sustainable development and Poverty Reduction

It is worth to note that the year 2015 saw the adoption of Sustainable Development Goals, commonly known as SDGs. This was occasioned by the need to emphasise that development should significantly reduce poverty levels in communities for it to be sustainable by 2030; Machingo (2018) notes that, the demands for sustainable and equitable development in communities are emphasized in the SDGs.

According to Koehler (2015) previous attempts to implement welfare public and social policy saw the world supporting the expansion of productive employment and reduction of unemployment. Koehler further notes that, this complemented social development, gender equality, environment concerns and social integration emphasised earlier on in this dissertation. It is at this stage where human rights as well as reduction in poverty levels were emphasized.

This research argues that it is imperative to discuss the concept of poverty and its dynamics in the obtaining literature on the basis that it is indispensable in the 2030 Agenda. Noticeably, poverty is understood as a condition in which people lack satisfactory material resources (thus food, shelter, clothing, housing) are unable to access basic service inter alia; health, education, education, water, sanitation, and are constrained in their ability to exercise rights, share power and lend their voices to the institutions and processes which affect the social, economic and political situation in which they live and work (Vandenberg, 2006). Based on Botswana Vision 2036 and Agenda 2030, it is envisaged that the adoption of sustainable development goals and implementation of the prudent policies will engender a poverty free equitable society.

Nthomang *et. al.*, (2016) notes that, the Government of Botswana has failed to seek the views and voices of youth and to impose decisions on programme conceptualization. The failure could be attributed to lack of capacities to reach certain minimally acceptable levels as pointed by Sen (1992). Taking Sen's conceptualization into consideration, one can surmised that unemployed youth are incapacitated as a result, cannot afford to uplift their livelihoods, either socially or economically.

Therefore, based on the foregoing it can be argued that, it is the responsibility of the government to initiate strategies that can promote the interests of youth especially those who are unemployed and facing several challenges to get emancipated. This research seeks to understand the interface between social policy introduced by the government and youth intervention programmes meant to ameliorate poverty.

The African continent is facing numerous challenges to achieve its developmental goals. Accordingly, reduction of poverty through an equitable distribution of resources within and between countries is a key theme in the sustainable development agenda. Notably, Hall & Midgley (2004) notes that, inequality for the disadvantaged youth is more frequently related to issues of discrimination, exploitation and oppression. This arguably generates differential access to socio-economic resources and an inability to exercise power effectively among the disempowered and oppressed youth. If that trend continues unabated, it will be difficult if not impossible to realise positive youth development and empowerment in Botswana and elsewhere in the African continent. The starting point for any development intervention is policy. The discussion now expands into the concept of social policy.

2.7 Understanding Social Policy and Social Development

2.7.1 Defining Social Policy

Having perused several scholarly literatures on social policy, this research contends that social policy is a difficult subject to define. However, it can be said that as an academic discipline,

social policy is an interdisciplinary and vocational subject that combines sociology, politics, social work and economics to study how governments and societies address issues of social welfare, individual wellbeing and social justice.

According to Hill (1993) social policy is a policy within a governmental or political setting, such as the welfare and study of social services. Social policy consists of guidelines, principles, legislation and activities that affect the living conditions to human welfare, such as a person's quality of life. Moreover, (Mupedziswa, 1993) argues that social policy is concerned with the ways societies across the world meet human needs for security, education, work, health and wellbeing. It addresses how states and societies respond to global challenges of social, demographic and economic changes, and poverty.

On an interesting note, Dye (1995) contends that policy is a decision made by the government to either act, or not to act in order to resolve a problem; along the same lines, Ggoobi (2016) notes that, policy is what the government chooses to do or not to do. Notably, Ajulor (2016) defines policy as a relatively stable, purpose course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or issue of concern. Issues of concern or existing problems shape the nature of the policy implemented.

Accordingly, a distinction is made between intention and action in Anderson's definition which clearly illustrates that decisions per se are not policies. Anderson (2000) further claims that social policies are those developed by governmental bodies and officials. This emphasises the role of central actors in shaping what becomes policy. Based on the foregoing, one can surmise

that social policy is a central planned and binding strategy to overcome some identified challenges in the community.

It outlines action to be taken, individuals or institutions to act, and give some timeframes over which the identified goal should be accomplished. To this end, social policy seeks to improve the welfare of the people by raising their standards of living through a set plan of actions and activities. Therefore, this dissertation is of the view that studying social policy will enable people to understand the causes of social problems (for instance, poverty and unemployment) and what the government attempt to do about them.

2.7.2 Defining Social Development

According to Midgley (2010) social development is about improving the well-being of every individual in society so they can reach their full potential. Thus, the success of society is linked to the well-being of each citizen. Further, social development means investing in people, it requires the removal of barriers so that all citizens can journey toward their dreams with confidence and dignity. It is all about refusing to accept that people who live in poverty will always be poor. It is about helping people so they can move forward on their path to self-sufficiency.

Mupedziswa (2001) notes that, social development is about putting people at the centre of development. This means a commitment that development processes need to benefit people, particularly but not only the poor, but also recognition that people, and the way they interact in

groups and society, and the norms that facilitates such interaction. Other scholars contend that social development promotes social inclusion of the poor and vulnerable by empowering people, building cohesive and resilient societies, and making institutions accessible and accountable to citizens. Additionally, empirical evidence and operational experience show that social development promotes economic growth and leads to better interventions and a higher quality of life.

In this dissertation, the researcher put forward the claim that to reduce poverty and youth unemployment in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa, we need to take a social development approach and invest in our people. We need to go beyond looking at government to find ways to develop our most valuable resources, our people. Moreover, we need to share responsibility with community organizations, businesses, universities and municipalities in the task of improving the well-being of all young people and preventing and reducing poverty.

2.7.3 Policy Implementation

Policy implementation can be defined differently with a lot of different connotation, however, in this dissertation is defined as the process of changing a formulated policy into reality. It provides the operational area of function in carrying out the public policy declared by competent authority. In the execution of public policy, the combination of human, material, machine, and money is highly necessary (Ajulor, 2016).

To Mbieli (2006), policy implementation is critical to the success of any policy since it constitutes the epicentre of the policy process. It involves the identification of policy plans,

programme, projects, and activities; precise definition of the distinct roles of implementation organizations or agencies; details of strategies and necessary linkages and coordinating mechanisms; as well as resources (human, financial, material, technology, information acquisition, and utilization). Efficient and effective policy implementation would require inputs of sound managerial and administrative capabilities to avoid the policy implementation gap (Maduabum, 2008).

2.7.4 Challenges to Social Policy Implementation in Africa

It is the premise of this research that challenges of social policy implementation in Africa could link to improper planning, political instability, and bureaucratic bottleneck, the deliberate imposition of policy, complete alteration to the plan if it is not favourable to the implementers or civil servants saddled with the responsibility to implement it. Ibrahim et al (2017) explains that policy implementation can be influenced by organization, interpretation, and application. Many authors (for example, Kaboyakgosi & Morata, 2013; Ajulor, 2016; Diraditsile, 2017) have also argued that Africa has no problem with policy plan or formulation other than the challenge of policy implementation. One of the challenges of policy implementation is the inability to involve the target beneficiaries in policy process (Dialoke, Ukah, & Maduagwun, 2017).

Ggoobi (2016) discussing why the implementation of policy fail in Uganda, attributed it to the neglect of the rural areas, and, comprehensive policy design and planning without proper management. Policies imposed by the government without considering whether it meets the needs of the people or not. Landsberg (2014) in South Africa, argues that many NGOs have

dubbed NEPAD a bottom-down scheme controlled by leaders and governments while they excluded civil society actors from NEPAD processes.

However, the new trends in Africa now are to adopt foreign made solutions to its plethora of problems and the implementation of such policy often undermines the capacity of local intellectual resources to act on local issues. These tend to deepen the underdevelopment of local talents and deprive them of the opportunity to master the problem on their terms. These also include the failure policymakers to take into consideration the social, political, economic and administrative environment when analysing policy implementation and this often results in policy failure (Egonman, 2000).

Machingo (2018) in Zimbabwe notes that, decision makers are required to deal with some challenges to implement public policies. The challenges affect service delivery and impact negatively on solving the challenges bedevilling communities. These challenges have been discussed by policy scholars over the years. Marume et al (2016) have indicated that on communication (transmission, clarity and consistency), resources (staff, information and authority) as well as disposition of implementers (bureaucratic politics, incentives and bypassing channels) as key challenges. It is emphasized that for effective policy execution, there is need for clear communication of what ought to be done.

Cloete (2002) asserts that laws, proclamations, regulations, official guidelines and other official documents should be so carefully worded that political office-bearers, public officials and lay members of the public can see at a glance what actions are envisaged. This view is supported by

Marume et al (2016), who noted that official documents should be succinctly written to enable political office bearer and public officials to quantify and qualify information to the extent that decisions made and actions taken are to be accountable in accordance with prescriptions or the factual data. It can be argued that policies have remained largely incomprehensive both for the implementers and target beneficiaries. This impedes the development of communities and problems continue to exist despite the efforts to solve them through policies.

It is also indicated that resources are regarded as major impediments on effective policy formulation and policy implementation. According to Marume et al (2016) no matter how clear the implementation orders are, if the personnel responsible for carrying out policies lack resources to do an effective job, policy makers will be disappointed in the results. This is reinforced by the conclusion made by Marume et al (2016) that policies cannot be declared as being effective in themselves, nor can they be implemented by their mere statement, that is, they are not self-executing, without staff, access to information, and authority. Noticeably, Kaboyakgosi & Morata (2013) have indicated that limited resources have made the implementation of progressive policies very difficult especially in the developing countries. This has led to the crafting of good policies on paper with little practical projects to show for the policies.

According to Makinde (2005) the environment is crucial and as such the policy maker must be able to consider the environment, inter alia; social, economic, and cultural, in other to avoid implementation gaps. This implies that effective policy should be preceded by an informed consultation process and research. Makinde (2005) further elaborated that, inadequate definition

of goals makes policy lack clarity, internal consistency and compatibility with other policy goals with the result that the successful implementation of such policy becomes problematic. This represents a challenge in communication, and it generated an implementation gap.

According to Mupedziswa (1992), social policies success depends on how they are implemented and put into practice in the field. The failure of the policies informs the view that social policy practice and research in Botswana is a muddled terrain with no consensus as to what constitutes social policy. To affirm on this, findings by Mupedziswa (1992), reveal that youth policies and programmes' research agenda has not been given enough attention.

It is the argument of this paper that what needs to be done is to re-design and strengthen existing youth intervention programmes so that they focus more on provision of knowledge and skills building, entrepreneurship, youth empowerment, work ethics, mentoring, and behaviour change. These skills will combine to change the attitude of the youth towards work as well as empowering unemployed youth to become more independent and hopefully graduate from dependency on government support to other sustainable economic empowerment ventures. Government should consider designing a robust social policy agenda for youth. The policy will provide some ideas and guidance on what to do to address the ever increasing social and economic problems and challenges in Botswana, including poverty, youth unemployment and underemployment.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter was guided by the research objectives of the study. It looked at the major determinants of youth unemployment from a global perspective, the magnitude of youth unemployment in the African continent and mitigating factors to address youth unemployment in Botswana. The chapter also looked at sustainable development and poverty reduction. Further, it defined various definitions of social policy and social development. The chapter also looked at the nexus between development and social policy. This was done to show how policies influence development outcomes. An attempt to illustrate the policy formulation and subsequent implementation has been made.

The chapter showed that the concepts of policy and development are intricately linked contributing to an understanding of the relevance of youth development and empowerment. Understanding how development is influenced by policy implementation helps to clarify why failure to implement pro-poor and youth driven policies has weakened the drive to empower youth. Indeed, youth have become victims of centrally planned and insensitive government programmes that have failed to positively transform them socially and economically. The next chapter looks at the youth development in the context of Japan, and lessons that Botswana can learn in order to address high youth unemployment rate

CHAPTER THREE

YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF JAPAN

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to understand the labour market situation in terms of youth development in Asia, Japan in particular. These shall draw a lesson for Botswana and other African countries to learn on ways to deal with the labour market situations in the African region.

Japan is much developed as compared to Botswana, with measures of development ranging from instances of excellence time management, efficient transportation system, extremely good customer service, professional service-oriented, service providers are approachable and the country emphasis on character building from a young age (Narayanasamy, 2003). Nonetheless, it is the contention of this doctoral dissertation that, besides Japan being advanced, many African countries can learn from Japan in order to achieve their developmental aspirations. The labour market of youths in Japan is considered in some detailed the paragraphs as follows.

3.2 Labour Market Situation of Young People in Japan

According to ILO (2017) report, Japan has been slowly recovering from its economic recession following the 2008 global financial meltdown, leading to a registered -0.1% GDP growth in 2015, that grew to 0.5% in 2016. In the recovery period, most countries undergo hard economic times, occasioned by youth being the first to be fired and the last to be hired. Therefore, youth

unemployment rates in the case of Botswana were twice as high as adult unemployment rates, at 5.9% in 2014, an improvement from 2010 that hit 9.3%. Based on the foregoing; ILO (2017) notes that, young men were more likely to be unemployed than young women in 2015, at 7% and 5% respectively.

Strikingly, the ILO (2017) report did not provide justification as to why young men were more likely to be unemployed than young women. In Botswana and elsewhere in the African region, during economic crisis, women stand to be more disadvantaged as compared to their male counterparts (Antonopoulos, 2014). According to Antonopoulos the experience and consequences of gender bias in employment affect women resulting in depressed economic and social empowerment of women.

Globally, evidence abounds showing that women are more vulnerable to poverty and make up the majority of the unemployed of which, Africa is not an exception in this regard (Pearson & Sweetman, 2011). According to Pearson & Sweetman, women in Africa are poorer than men, having less access to and control over economic resources and skill training. Additionally, female households have to survive on the lowest incomes relative to those headed by males.

In Japan, the size of Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET) population is of concern for the government, numbering over 500,000 by 2012 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2016). Notably, there are indications however of progress in supporting this category of young people. In the year 2015 the NEET rate was 9%, which is

lower than the OECD average of 15% (Ibid, 2016). Evidence abounds that another vulnerable category of youth are the temporary workers classified as “freeters”.

According to OECD, 2016 this category initially wanted to be part-time workers and be independent from companies, but with the slump of the economy more businesses employed freeters to save on labour costs. As a result, becoming a full-time employee became more allusive for young people (Reiko, 2006).

3.3 Policies and Strategic Responses for Youth Employment in Japan

3.3.1 Youth Employment Policy Approach

It is worth to note that the government of Japan is concerned with youth unemployment (OECD, 2015). Further, Japan’s goal, as defined in the Revitalization Strategy, is to decrease by 20% those who have been unemployed for more than 6 months and to achieve an employment rate of 78% for those between the ages of 20-34, compared to 74% in 2012. Moreover, Japan has implemented policies to address the labour demand, improve the school-to-work transition through active labour market policies, and increase the relevance of technical vocational education and training, and improving career guidance.

According to Sachiko (2011), Public Employment Service plays a cardinal role in the provision of career guidance, which is done in close cooperation with educational institution and/or universities. Sachiko points out on strategies that have targeted enterprises and employers by encouraging changes in recruitment methods, provision of skills training and career development

opportunities for young workers and improving working conditions. Most common strategies incorporate provisions that target young graduates, the unemployed, freeters and NEETs. While the age range varies according to the specific provision, according to the Japan National Youth Development Policy 2008, youth refers to those under the age of 30 (OECD, 2015).

Based on the foregoing, it is the contention of this research that, Botswana effectively addresses youth unemployment. The strategy to adopt needs to focus on developing youth employment policy approach that is similar to the one in Japan. Whereas the primary focus is to decrease youth unemployment within less than 6 months, Botswana should set targets in order to achieve a remarkable percentage of employment rates amongst youths.

3.3.2 Enterprise Development

Japan's 2013 Revitalization Strategy encourages young entrepreneurs by providing access to finance through a crowd-funding scheme for young people and has a business support-system provided by business experts along with websites to support young entrepreneurs (Aramaki, 2018). Japan's Revitalization Strategy adopted a number of measures related to access to finance include low-interest loans and working capital for youth less than 40 who have started a business in the last 5 years (Vision for children and young people). According to Aramaki, to a great extent, Entrepreneurship Education is fostered in the Youth Independence Challenge Plan by establishing participatory entrepreneurship education in elementary, junior high and senior high schools and by expanding the "entrepreneur academy" to encourage young people to become entrepreneurs.

3.3.3 Education and Training

Regarding vocational education, the Revitalization Strategy mentions restructuring vocational subjects so that they are based on the needs of companies and encourages schools to deepen ties with the industry, hence creating a better match between supply and demand (In Khoo-Lattimore & In Yang, 2018). Accordingly, the 2015 Industrial Competitiveness Action Plan, also focuses on the reform of technical education, increasing links with private sector demand for skills and the accelerated promotion of National Strategic Growth Areas.

The most emphasis should be placed on career education and career guidance according to Yokoyama & Birchley, (2020). Additionally, according to the Japanese Education system, career education starts as early as elementary school, and provides students with opportunities to learn about different occupations through experiential learning and cooperation between schools and enterprises. Botswana and other African countries in general can learn and benefit from education and training in Japan. According to Bashir, et. al., (2018), it is clear that, career education and guidance is not fully exploited in many African countries on the grounds that it seems universities have no relationship with companies, parastatals and government ministries and departments.

In Japan, the Career Exploration Programme offers opportunity to learners through inviting guest speakers from various organizations to talk to students in junior and high school on basic Policies for Employment Measures (OECD, 2008). Career Exploration Programme emphasizes

on career guidance and creation of strong relationships between the educational institutions and the public employment services. In that undertaking, the Vision for Children and Young People, the high school students are assigned a 'job supporters' from the Public Employment Security Office to assist them find employment opportunities smoothly. Conspicuously, similar support gets offered to university students, where their job supporter provides them with information in relation to job referrals and counselling.

According to Walwei & Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung (1996), it is worth to note that, vocational guidance is also provided by schools in cooperation with the public employment services (PES). PES offers the 'job card' scheme, according to the Basic Policies for Employment Measures, provides counselling, practical vocational training and recognition of vocational training for students and as well as working youth. Further, PES creates opportunities for different employment experiences, including internships, measures to promote internships and the Youth Independence Challenge Plan to promotes accreditation of internships.

Japan also takes a long-term approach to training by encouraging provisions for young workers falling under lifelong learning according to Ogawa (2015). Lifelong learning in Japan is in line with the Basic Plan for Working Youth Welfare Measures that includes; provisions to encourage working youth through a mentor system and ensuring time for their self-development. The Working Youth Welfare Law's Article 12 states that employers need to ensure that youth have time for vocational training or education as echoed by Ogawa (2015). Furthermore, in accordance to lifelong learning, career progression of young workers is also encouraged through

short-term education programmes organized at universities, graduate schools and training colleges (Youth Independence Challenge Plan).

3.3.4 Labour Demand

Based on the guidelines on Improvement of Labour Management in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises to Secure the Workforce (Guidelines for SMEs), SMEs provide 70% of employment, yet young workers do not look positively on SMEs mainly due to lower pay, lower training opportunities and lower prestige (Toivonene, 2011). Further, to counter-act this, there are different measures to provide employer subsidies to implement vocational education and training so that prospective employees can gain skills and knowledge. Through “Vocational Training with Practical Work” initiative, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare allocates grants to those businesses, that provide training between 6 months and 2 years of duration, 850 hours of training on yearly basis and where the practical training made up 20-80% of total training (Human Resources Development Promotion Act) as outlined by Toivonene (2011).

Employers are encouraged to provide stable employment to young people, who do not yet have professional experience to be employed on full-time basis according to Karan & Stapleton (2015). Provision of stable employment is done through wage subsidies in the ‘trial employment’ scheme, whereby employers receive 40, 000 yen per month, when they offer work to a young person for three months, with at least 30 hours of work per week. Further, the Revitalization Strategy expands the scope of trial employment to part-time workers, NEETs, and unemployed graduates (Karan & Stapleton, 2015).

In order to encourage small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to support the career development of young workers, SMEs can receive ‘Career development promotion subsidies’ if they provide vocational training to young employees or grant holidays to young employees (Lam & Shin, 2012). Career development is to allow them to enrol in vocational training that is done through subsidy. The subsidy is contingent upon the employer still paying the young worker his/her salary for the time spent during training. The Guidelines for Employers’ Appropriate Actions Regarding Ensuring Employment Opportunities for Young People (Employers’ Guidelines) also provides subsidies to employers who carry out on the job training (training conducting with job duties) and off-the-job training (training conducted outside of job duties) as stated by Lam & Shin (2012).

3.3.5 Labour law and legislation

Encouraging a healthy work environment for young workers is recognised as key (Khan, Vanderburg & Nakajima, 2004). A healthy work environment encourages a work-life balance through restricting prolonged working hours, ensuring time allocated for self-development, and encouraging the taking of annual leave are encouraged in the Basic Plan for Working Youth Welfare Measures. In consideration to this, guidelines for SMEs call on SMEs to improve the counselling systems for mental health of young employees.

3.3.6 Labour Market Policies

It worth to highlight that, in Japan, free employment placement services are to be conducted in schools after notifying the Minister of Health, Labour and Welfare (Ogawa, 2015). The placement goes a long way to involve job supporters to provide one-on-one assistance to those who are expecting to graduate without a job offer and those who are already unemployed after graduation. The job cafe is considered a one-stop shop that provides information concerning occupations and skills development, opportunities for obtaining work experience such as internships, career counselling, and job-hunting support services. Ogawa points out that job cards are given to part time workers as a career counselling tool. Moreover, scholarships for vocational training are given to those graduates who lost their hiring offers due to natural disasters.

In the Basic Plan for Working Youth Measures, NEETs are targeted through consultation with career consultants, provision of training in communication and in providing opportunities for work experience (Toivonen, 2012). NEET prevention and early recovery is done through home visits to youth who have dropped out of school or who are at risk of dropping out. Through this programme, Freeters are supported in ‘job-seekers support scheme’ by being offered free vocational training and social protection during the training period.

However, a reform of the recruitment system is encouraged across several policy documents. A multiple-application system and year-round hiring is proposed, which would be particularly beneficial for high school seniors who would therefore be able to apply to several jobs in their final year (Youth Independence Challenge Plan). The Guidelines for Employers also states that

recruitment rules should be changed so that both expecting graduates and those who already graduated should be eligible to apply for positions. The upper age limit is encouraged to be placed so that a wide range of young people can apply, and the recruitment season to be extended from the spring to also include the autumn (Perritt Jr, 2010).

Regarding social protection, the Revitalization strategy calls for a review of the employment insurance system so that it supports the re-education of young people (particularly for those who would like to change their career). In addition, unemployment benefits are given to new graduates who lost their preliminary hiring offers due to natural disaster (Kirsch, 2008).

3.4 Structure of Governance and Main Actors

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare is a key actor and/or factor in the field of youth employment. It played an important role in the Human Resource Development Act, Working Youth Welfare Law, Employment Security Law and many others. It is also responsible for monitoring the provision of free employment services and the standards of employment placement services.

Other relevant ministries are the Ministry of Education, Sports, Culture and Technology and the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry. One characteristic of Japanese provisions is the importance of cooperation among several actors in implementation. This is the case, for example, with the job card programme and the job café. For the former industry, employers and the

government cooperate in implementation and in the latter, municipal governments; local industries and schools collaborate on implementation (Shiroyama, et al 2012).).

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter covered the overall youth development in the context of Japan, and how Botswana and other African countries can benefit from lessons learnt in Japan. It looked at labour market situation of young people in Japan, policies and strategic responses for youth employment. Moreover, it looked at policy and legal measures inter alia; enterprise development, education and training, labour demand, labour law and legislation, labour market policies, as well as structure of governance and main actors regarding youth development matters in Japan.

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Introduction

This section focuses on the theory that has been adopted as the guiding framework of the dissertation. The section briefly described the overview of the theory, followed by the founders, tenets of the theory and how the theory has been applied in the study. According to Payne (2005) theory consists of a series of relatively abstracts and general statements which collectively purport to explain some aspect of the empirical world (the “reality” known to us directly or indirectly through our senses). Therefore, it can be said that a theory is an organised statement of ideas about the world. It is worth to note that, this doctoral research adopted the theory of Youth Empowerment Theory as its guiding framework.

4.2 Overview of the theory

The field of youth empowerment has a solid foundation of the theory, at both process and outcomes levels (Ledford, Lucas, Dairaghi & Ravelli, 2013). This theory is popularly known as the critical youth empowerment theory and was founded by Jennings, Parra-Mediana, Hilfinger Messias, and Mcloughlin. It entails those processes and contexts through which youth engage in actions that create change in organizational, institutional and societal policies, structures, values, norms and images. (Jennings et al., 2006). Furthermore, the theory talks about active participation among the youth cohort of the population. It is a theory that comprehensively looks at the possible avenues that the youth can pursue as individuals and as groups to realise

empowerment. Its main aim is to support and foster youth contributions to positive community development and socio-political change, resulting in youth who are critical citizens, actively participating in the day to day building of stronger, more equitable communities (Ibid, 2006).

Noticeably, the process of empowerment provides opportunities for youth to develop skills and become problem solvers and decision makers. Whereas on the other hand, the outcomes refer to the empowerment process, including the consequences of attempts to gain control in the community and the effects of interventions designed to empower participants. Ledford et al (2013) notes that, the theory of youth empowerment can be broken down into three components, namely; individual empowerment, organizational empowerment and community empowerment.

Research shows that, empowerment is a social action process that can occur at multiple levels, for instance individual, family, organization, and community. Notably, theorists and researchers across multiple disciplines have examined and analyzed empowerment linking it to individual and collective health, well-being, and environments. According to Jennings et. al., (2006) proposed empowerment as a continuum or ladder, with Atomistic Individual Empowerment (focus on changing the individual) and Political Empowerment (focus on changing the community) as the two endpoints. Such a continuum focuses on only one-dimension empowerment, the level or subject (individual vs collective).

Along the same line, Zimmerman (2000) states that at the individual level, psychological empowerment focuses on individual level capacity building, integrating perceptions of personal control, a proactive approach to life, and a critical understanding of the socio-political

environment. Furthermore, collective empowerment occurs within families, organizations, and communities, involving processes and structures that enhance members skills, provide them with mutual support necessary to effect change, improve their collective well-being, and strengthen intra and inter-organizational networks and linkages to improve or maintain the quality of community level. It is worth to note that while various scholars and researchers have demonstrated that the theory is sound, there is paucity of record of the implementation, effectiveness, and accountability of youth empowerment.

4.3 Founder(s) of Youth Empowerment Theory

The term empowerment originates from American community psychology and is associated with the social scientist known as Julian Rappaport (1981). Nonetheless, the roots of empowerment theory extend further into history and are linked to Marxist sociological theory. Therefore, the founder of youth empowerment theory is Zimmerman (2000) whereas; Ledford et al (2013) came up with Youth Empowerment Solutions (YES), which is an interesting addition to Youth Empowerment Theory.

Ledford et. al., (2013) found means to successfully implement all aspects of the theory of youth empowerment through the development of the YES. The model is a three prolonged approach to empowerment that challenges youth to develop skills, gain critical awareness, and participate in opportunities that are necessary for creating community change. Intrinsic to the YES, Youth Empowerment Model is the theory of youth empowerment, not only aiding in the development

of youth, but also helping to create generations of critically minded youth that take strategic actions to improve their communities.

4.4 Tenets of the theory

The theory has six critical elements that are used to evaluate empowerment amongst the youth. It suggests that engaging youth in pro-social, meaningful, and community-enhancing activities that the youth themselves define and control; helps the youth gain vital skills, responsibilities, and confidence necessary to become productive and healthy adults.

4.4.1 Meaningful Participation and Engagement

Machingo (2018) notes that, in terms of meaningful participation and engagement; the youth need to be given an opportunity to exercise some latitude in implementing their projects. The youth need to engage in activities relevant to their own lives, ones that excite and challenge them.

It is further argued that, the youth activities need to promote underlying competence and intrinsic motivations of the youth so that they can test and master their own interests, develop skills, and gain confidence. This implies that the youth need to engage in their activities for a longer period for them to fully develop their skills. This also enhances opportunities to develop a positive self-identity, increased sense of self-worth, and enhanced self-efficacy (Jennings et al., 2006).

4.4.2 Participation in Socio-Political Processes to Effect Change

It is worth to note that the theory advances the view that youth are not truly empowered if they do not have the capacity to address the structure, processes, social values and practices of the issues at hand. Critical social theories on empowerment also advances the idea that, youth should have opportunities to analyse the obtaining socio-political situation so that they can approach the obtaining challenges from an informed perspective. This would improve their ability to be agents of change, in the quest for youth socio-economic development (Jennings et al., 2006).

4.4.3 A Welcoming and Safe Environment

Research shows that the youth need an environment that is safe and welcoming in order to allow them to act freely. Such an environment is seen as conducive in nurturing creativity amongst the youth (Machingo, 2018). In this study, creativity is understood in the light of business enterprises that are meant to address youth unemployment in Botswana. The environment is shaped by the policy framework of Botswana; hence, the theory enables one to explore the compatibility of the policy in its quest to promote youth socio-economic empowerment. This element also implies that youth are actively involved in making decisions and expressing themselves freely without fear of retribution. Furthermore, the environment is understood to promote active learning among the youth who may experience both success and failure.

4.4.4 Equitable power sharing between youth and adults

It is worth to highlight that, the element of equitable power sharing between the youth and adults is also permit in this theory. In Botswana, there is a tendency of the government to subsume the youth in the entire population and most of the time decisions are made for the youth without involving them. However, according to this tenet of the theory, the activities engaged in by the youth, should be determined and directed by them, with some level of support and guidance from the adults. However, it is emphasised that their role is to create and maintain a balance of providing support without domination This suggests that there is need for collaboration between the youth and the adults, but the relationship should not be exploitative (Jennings et al., 2006).

4.4.5 Integrated Individual and Community Level Empowerment

The assertion that youth empowerment operates at different levels is also underscored in the theory. It is upheld that critical social empowerment involves both individual and group level change: enhancing the capacity of individuals to contribute to and work in collaboration with others to effect social change (Jennings et al., 2006). Here, the rationale of being empowered provides opportunity for the youth to alter agency and/or allows them to make contributions to the decisions that affect their lives. This implies that they would also need to be aware of processes, structures and social practices that have a bearing on their livelihood. Such consciousness suggests that youth must change the circumstances that are not in line with the realization of a sustainable livelihood.

4.4.6 Engagement in critical reflection on international and socio-political processes

It is worth to indicate that the tenet of this theory is sync with the idea of social emancipation that, the youth must be able to transform the policy environment that regulates their programmes interventions that are meant to create employment for them and to improve their livelihoods. Jennings et al (2006) notes that, if people are not critically aware of the visible and invisible structures and processes that make up social institutions and practices, not of theory own role and actions within these institutions and practices, there is little room for empowerment.

4.5 Applicability of the theory in relation to the study

Having perused the empowerment theory, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that understanding the mechanics of empowerment helps this present study to explore youth policies and programme interventions to see their effectiveness as well as their efficiency. According to Martinez et al (2017) it is upheld that empowerment is related to the change and transformation of such people, groups and communities, and to the process by means of which a situation of lack of power or disempowerment becomes one in which power is somehow attained.

This theory is handy in the study because it is emancipatory in that it advances ideas of freedom, where individuals need to be liberated from covert and overt restrictions in the environment. Its element includes a focus on structural rather than personal explanations of social problems and a concern of inequality and oppression. Although the original theory might have not dealt with the

youth as individuals, this doctoral research deals with the concerns that are particular to youth, both individuals and groups in Botswana.

The theory was found to be relevant to this research on the grounds that it explains the relationship between variables that this study sought to investigate with the aiming of contributing new knowledge in the area of youth development and empowerment in Botswana and elsewhere in the African continent. The theory is helpful in investigating the different experiences of the youth participants who have benefited under the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development in Botswana.

At the micro level, psychological empowerment is said to focus on individual level capacity building, integrating perceptions of personal control, proactive approach to life, and a critical understanding of socio-political environment. Noticeably, by defining empowerment and giving some examples of the empowerment outcomes, the theory is linked to be obtaining literature on the contested subject of empowerment. Moreover, the framework is useful in addressing the individual concerns of the youth engaging in operating businesses enterprises under the Youth Development Fund in Botswana.

4.6 Success rate of empowerment theory

Empowerment theory has been widely used in social sciences and in the field of health and community development by several scholars. Research on the effectiveness of empowerment strategies has identified two major pathways: the processes by which it is generated and its

effects in improving health and reducing health disparities. Empowerment is recognized both as an outcome by itself and as an intermediate step to long-term health status and disparity outcomes.

Within the first pathway, a range of outcomes have been identified on multiple levels and domains: psychological, organizational, and community-levels; and within household and/or family, economic, political, programs and services (such as health, water systems, education), and legal spheres. Only a few researchers have used designs resulting in evidence ranked as strong in the traditional evidence grading systems. Yet there is evidence based on multi-level research designs that empowering initiatives can lead to health outcomes and that empowerment is a viable public health strategy.

Research has been focused on empowerment of socially excluded populations (for example, women, youth, people at risk for HIV and AIDS, and the poor), though application of empowerment crosses to other populations and issues in public health. Youth empowerment interventions have produced multiple empowerment and health outcomes: strengthened self- and collective efficacy, stronger group bonding, formation of sustainable youth groups, increased participation in structured activities including youth social action, and policy changes, leading to improved mental health and school performance. Multi-level empowerment strategies for HIV and AIDS prevention which address gender inequities have improved health status and reduced HIV infection rates.

Moreover, women's empowering interventions, integrated with the economic, educational, and political sectors, have shown the greatest impact on women's quality of life, autonomy and authority and on policy changes, and on improved child and family health. Patient and family empowerment strategies have increased patients' abilities to manage their disease, adopt healthier behaviours, and use health services more effectively, as well as increasing care-giver coping skills and efficacy. Furthermore, coalitions and inter-organizational partnerships that promote empowerment through enhanced participation and environmental and policy changes have led to diverse health outcomes.

Literature has focused on the correlations between participatory empowering strategies and project effectiveness in organizational empowerment, through greater efficiency, sustainability, and more equitable distribution of services, especially in water and sanitation development projects. In a meta-analysis of prevention programmes for child maltreatment, empowerment approaches based on participant involvement and social support were found to increase programme impact. A study on village water committees showed that institutional transparency and accountability, access to information and participation, emerged as most important for equity of services and committee effectiveness (Whittington, et al 2009).

4.7 Critiques of empowerment theory

Although empowerment theory has generated a great deal of research, it does have its detractors and has received some serious criticisms. The theory remains a source of academic discord and is a long and protracted point of contention regarding youth development studies. Though many

scholars advocate for active participation of youth for transformative decision making and positive youth development, it is worth to recognize that there are critiques of empowerment theory regarding participation in the decision-making processes. The radical critique of the theory suggests that far from empowering youth, participation is simply a new form of conformity, and this should not be allowed to go unchallenged (Bessant, 2009).

According to Farthing (2012) one can deduce that the act of including young people in decision making processes is best understood as another exercise in power over them, therefore this challenge needs a paradigm shift that will center on the mindsets of elderly populace. Cohen (1985) notes that, involving the youth in the decision-making process, can ensure that those with the greatest reason to challenge the state's existing power structures continue to conform. Cohen further argues that engaging young people through participation does not empower them; rather it simply makes young people to conform and increases the likelihood to act in accordance with policies and programmes appropriately once they have been conceptualized by the national leaderships.

Notably, following Wilson & Nesbit (2005) a generative yet oddly rare way to interrogate empowerment is to ask: "Where is the power?" a question that works both in the sense of analysing how power flows through ostensibly empowering social relations, and in the sense of assessing the role of social theories of power in empowerment discourses. The question is not new: "Why is power not included in the lexicon of educators? The idea of power has been more completely neglected in education studies than in any other discipline of fundamental social interest.

Indeed, one is more likely to hear singing in a bank than serious talk of power in relation to education” (Nyberg, 1981). For empirical support, Nyberg provides an annotated bibliography of seven books which have “power” and “education” in their titles, yet which do not even speak directly about what power is; some don’t even have power in the index!

Evidently, while some domains of education discourse have seen an upswing in considerations of power in the thirty years since Nyberg, adult education is not one of them: “Because most theorists and many practitioners tend to ignore or deplore the workings of power in practice and theory, power continues to be problematic. Those adult education theorists who do tend to the problem of power too often do so either presumptively (assuming we all know what power is when we truly do not) or in under-theorized ways” (Wilson & Nesbit, 2005). The result is a technical-rationalistic approach to planning, implementing, and evaluating adult education, a fairly sure way to reproduce unjust existing power relations.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the theory which has been adopted in the study, thus youth empowerment theory. It looked at the overview of the theory, progenitors of the theory as well as the tenets of the empowerment theory. It also discussed the applicability of the theory in relation to the study on how it can be used to foster youth development and empowerment in the African context. Lastly, this chapter looked at both the success and the critiques of the theory as per different scholars in the literature.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodologies which have been employed in the study. It includes, inter alia: philosophical standpoint, the research design, research method, sampling frame, sampling process, data analysis and display. Furthermore, the chapter also covers reliability and validity, the research ethics which was imperative for issues of research integrity.

5.2 Philosophical standpoint

Research may employ either positivist or interpretivist approaches or both (Biggam, 2008). A researcher with a positivist view of the world holds that reality is objective and independent of the observer and so can be measured and predicted (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991; Renenyi et al, 1998). A positivist research is not influenced by the unpredictable behaviour of human beings. This approach is common in the world of science, and its major emphasis is on quantifiable data (Biggam, 2008). Interpretivist researches on the other hand, hold to a different view of the world than positivist researchers. They believe that there are many, equally valid interpretations of reality, and that these interpretations are dependent on when they are made and the context in which they are made (Biggami, 2008)

According to Saunders (2007) the purpose of an exploratory study is to find out new insights and is helpful to find understand a problem and to clarify it. Given the above discussion, this research adopted interpretivism approach since it does not stand on ontology alone, but rather

epistemology hoping to gain interpretation through social context. Saunders (2007) posits that there are two main methods that are used in research, and these are qualitative and quantitative methods. They further explain that qualitative approaches are used to gain deeper understanding of the phenomena. Thanerou et al (2007) adds to the foregoing, and posits that qualitative research explores the depth and richness of a phenomenon. Qualitative studies are carried out when the topic is new, the topic has never been addressed with a certain sample or group of people (Morse, 1991).

Based on the above-mentioned, it should be emphasized that, the main objective of this study is to gain deeper understanding and explore the depth on how youth intervention programmes can be modified and improved to fully stave off youth unemployment in Botswana. Therefore, this research is implemented with the understanding that reality is subjective to the people who are living it. Creswell (2009) notes that, the goal of a research written under constructivist world view is to rely as much as possible on the participant's views of the situation being studied.

Consequently, based on the foregoing the study interviewed three different categories of respondents comprising; youth participants, senior management and programme officers. The former benefited from youth development intervention programmes in the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development in Botswana, whereas the latter are responsible for facilitating the smooth running of youth unemployment interventions in the same ministry where youth participants benefited. Notably, the rationale for interviewing the youth beneficiaries was to understand their views on how youth intervention programmes can be modified and improved in order to effectively address their needs. Kenneth & Todd (2011) argue

that, there is no sense in limiting the facilities of the mind in any inquiry, a reasonable judgment is important and will be employed as a mechanism of analysis added to opinion and imagination.

5.3 Research Methods

Alreck (1995) notes that research methods are categories or terminologies, strategies, and techniques that are used to conduct research. Consequently, as noted earlier on research is typically divided into two methods, namely; quantitative and qualitative. As succinctly put by Babbie (2010) a quantitative method refers to a research that involves the statistical or numeric collection and analysis of data whilst qualitative method refers to a non-numeric analysis and involves collection of text and verbatim data about people's subjective views.

In addition, qualitative method seeks to explore a phenomenon; its instruments use more flexible and interactive style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions (Pope, 2000). Whereas quantitative seek to confirm hypothesis about a phenomenon, and its instruments use a more rigid style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions. Notably, qualitative approach employs semi structured methods such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and participation observation; whilst the quantitative approach employs highly structured methods such as questionnaires, surveys and structured observation.

5.3.1 Method adopted in the Study

This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative method commonly known as mixed method. The rationale for using a combination of qualitative and quantitative data in this research was to improve an evaluation by ensuring that the limitations of one type of data are balanced by the strengths of another. This highly ensured that understanding is improved by integrating different ways of getting deeper to impact assessment of the current youth initiatives under study. Hence, this explained why the country is experiencing high youth unemployment though it has many responses that are directly meant to deal with the plight of the youth. In a nutshell, this evaluation collected both quantitative data (numbers, statistics, etc) and qualitative data (text).

5.4 Research design

According to Skinner (2005) a research design is the logical strategy of a study. It is seen as the plan, structure and strategy of investigations, which seeks to obtain answers to a research questions (Grinnell, 1981). In addition, Grinnell (1981) further posits that, the purpose of a research design is to set a systematic procedure for producing data pertaining to the development, modification and expansion of knowledge.

Moreover, this research adopted a triangulation approach. Triangulated approach refers to the use of three research designs which are; exploratory, explanatory and descriptive (Babbie, 2007). It intends to facilitate validation of data through cross verification from more than two sources. The rationale behind the triangulation research design was that, the study seeks to *describe* the effects of unemployment on the quality of the youth in Botswana and *explain* contributing factors that

leads to high unemployment and failure of youth intervention programmes in Botswana. Lastly the study is *exploratory* on the basis that there is no previous research that has been conducted locally on the impact assessment of youth intervention programmes in Botswana pertaining to the topic. It is also the first of its kind to look at comparative perspectives with regard to social policies and strategic responses in addressing youth unemployment getting lesson from Asian developing countries.

5.4.1 Explanatory

According to Babbie (2007) the focus of explanatory research design is to find out why some events or situations exist. Newman (2006) asserts that, explanatory research builds on the descriptive research and its primary purpose is to explain why events occur. It elaborates on the question of “why”. Therefore, in the study, explanatory approach was used in understanding why Botswana has a high youth unemployment rates whilst there are a number of programmes meant to address youth unemployment, particularly targeting young people. In addition, this also explained the reality that despite high levels of economic growth in Botswana, unemployment levels have remained unacceptably high.

5.4.2 Exploratory

According to Murchnick (1996) when researchers conduct exploratory research, they are breaking new grounds. Hence, the purpose of exploration is to better understand some group, event or phenomenon about which little or no previous research has been done. It is therefore the

contention of this research that there might not have been any previous research that has been conducted in Botswana regarding the subject matter/proposed topic.

To a great extent, there are two studies that the researcher came across that are close to the topic; the one that was done by Sechele (2010) on youth unemployment and self-employment in contemporary Botswana. The other one was conducted by Diraditsile & Ontetse (2017) on lived experiences and consequences of unemployment on women: An empirical study of unemployed young women in Mahalapye, Botswana. Perhaps it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that, this is the first study to be conducted in Botswana looking at the impact assessment of youth empowerment initiatives in Botswana and getting lessons from the Asian perspective. On this basis, according to Babbie (2007) there are advantages of an exploratory design, one of which is that whenever a researcher is breaking new ground, he/she can almost yield new insight into a topic of research.

5.4.3 Descriptive

According to Anselm (2004) in descriptive studies, a researcher observes and then describes what is being observed. Babbie (2007) also contends that, descriptive studies are interested in answering the “what”, “where”, “when” and the “how” questions. In this study, the researcher’s interest was on finding the nature and extent of youth unemployment in Botswana; and effects of the youth intervention initiatives, policies and programmes.

5.4.4 Time dimension

A cross sectional analysis was employed for this study. According to Newman (2003) cross sectional study involves observation of the entire population at one specific point in time. One advantage of this is that one can deal with the issues once rather than making a series of observations more than once on members of the study population over a period of time (Anselm, 2004). The respondents are interviewed once and the researcher does not fear losing them in future, as it is the case with longitudinal studies (Babbie, 2007). It is also inexpensive, on the grounds that one does not have to go back to the same respondents. In addition, it should also be emphasized that the study was undertaken in partial fulfilment for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Social Sciences, hence meeting a specific time limit and/or requirement.

5.5 Study Population

A study population is all the cases or individuals that fit a certain specification (Ary et al, 2002). Moreover, Neuman (2007) defines study population as an aggregation of elements from which the sample is selected. In this regard, the study population comprised of youth (beneficiaries) of government initiatives under the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development (MYSC), Programme Officer, and key informants (senior management) in the same ministry

5.5.1 Study site

The study was conducted in Gaborone which is the capital city of Botswana, located in southern part of the country and data was collected in Tlokweng, Ramotswa and Mogoditshane. The researcher chose to conduct the study in Gaborone and surrounding areas on the basis that all the

study participants were easily accessible from the aforementioned areas than in other parts of the country. The other reason for conducting the study in Gaborone is because the researcher resides in Gaborone while in Botswana. As a result, it was convenient for the researcher during data collection.

5.6 Study Sample

According to Newman (2006) a sample is a small collection of cases drawn from the sampling frame from which the researcher collects data and make generalization or deepen the understanding of the larger population. Therefore, one can say a sample is a sub set of the study population chosen to participate in the study. Interestingly, Babbie (2004) stated that it is often impossible to study all the elements in the study population, hence sampling should be done.

Notably, in qualitative studies, researchers do not only focus on small samples but also on reaching the point of saturation in the responses (Babbie, 2001). Locke (2001) further asserts that, between 10 and 30 interviews are enough for a researcher to get to the point of saturation. If a researcher is to exceed 30 interviews, then the purpose of extra respondents may be to validate the patterns, concepts, categories, properties and dimensions that the researcher has developed (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Based on what has been discussed above, this study had 145 participants. The following are samples of the study group: 100 – youth participants, 25 – policy makers and 20 – programme

officers. Noticeably, there were more youth participants who took part in the study on the basis that is where the focus of the research is.

5.7 Sampling Technique

Sampling techniques are systematic procedures or steps used in the methods for selecting the sample from the study population or study sites (Newman, 2007). In this study, the sampling techniques involved the non-random procedures in selecting the sample. As the study adopted mixed method probability sampling and non-probability sampling was utilised. Under nonprobability sampling; purposive and snowball sampling was utilised. Regarding probability sampling; systematic sampling as well as simple random sampling was used in order to select the study participants for this doctoral research. Let's focus on the explaining of the aforementioned sampling techniques below.

5.7.1 Purposive sampling

According to Monette et al (1990) purposive sampling refers to a non-probability sampling method in which elements in the sampling frame do not have an equal chance of being included in the sample. It is a technique in which the sample is selected based on the researcher's understanding of the elements to adequately represent the study focus and the elements of the cases to be included in the sample (Newman, 2007). Moreover, Skinner (2005) further states that, purposive approach to sampling allows researchers to use their own knowledge, skills, experience and professional wisdom to select the sample.

The use of purposive sampling was convenient in identifying key informants from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development. The method allowed the use of the researcher's knowledge of the participants in terms of their involvement regarding youth matters, inter alia; youth unemployment/empowerment, youth empowerment, youth development, just to mention but a few.

5.7.2 Snowball sampling

Snowball sampling is also known as chain referral sampling, it is considered a type of purposive sampling (Newman, 2007). It is a method in which elements are identified based on a referral system from one or few cases and eventually identifying a multitude of the elements for a study (Blumer, 2006). The method was convenient because participants or informants with whom contact has already been made used their social networks to refer the researcher to other people who participated in the study.

It should be noted that though the method has advantages it also has certain disadvantages. For example, it is heavily reliant on the skill of the individual conducting the actual sampling, and their ability to network and find an appropriate sample. To be successful it requires previous contacts within the target areas, and the ability to keep the information flow going throughout the target group. According to Skinner (2005) identifying the appropriate person to conduct the sampling, as well as locating the correct targets is a time-consuming process which renders the benefits only slightly outweighing the costs.

5.8 Methods of Data Collection

There are three most common qualitative methods of data collection namely; participation observation, in-depth interviews and focused groups (Newman, 2007). For the purpose of this study, the researcher collected data using semi structured method which is in-depth face to face interviews and focused group discussion. This type of data collection method was chosen on the basis that it allows the respondents to be able to articulate their views verbally.

5.8.1 In-depth interview

In-depth face to face interview is an interaction between a researcher (interviewer) and respondent in which the researcher' goal is to obtain specific information from respondents by asking them a series of questions in a particular order (Babbie, 2004). In the study, the respondents under this section which includes a small number of Senior Management and Programme Officers in the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development, was requested to provide their own opinions and views to the questions that were asked based on their experiential knowledge having worked for a long time in the Ministry.

According to Dawson (2006) in-depth interviews participants are free to talk about their situations, and this type of interview is suitable for qualitative research. The other reason for selecting in-depth face to face interview is that interviews create the opportunity for interviewer to ask supplementary questions. It should be noted that though the researcher opted to use in-depth face to face interview, the researcher was aware that it has its own weaknesses. For example, face to face interview have been criticized for taking a long time to arrange and

conduct. The respondents may jump from one subject to another and the other disadvantage is that the respondent may get hurt during the interview.

Nevertheless, the researcher compensated for such pit falls. As it is indicated that the interviews take a long time to arrange and conduct. The researcher had already created an excellent rapport with Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development, and this rapport was very handy during data collection process. During data collection the research did not take much time to mobilize and conduct interviews, although, the first few weeks the staffs in the MYSC was busy preparing for the Youth Exposition and International Youth Day. The weakness of respondents jumping from one subject to another is dully acknowledged and it was managed by the researcher as the questions were asked in a sequential manner.

5.8.2 Focused Group Discussion

A focus group is a small group of six to ten people led through an open discussion by a skilled moderator (Babbie, 2010). The group needs to be large enough to generate rich discussion but not so large that some participants are left out (Newman, 2008). Based on the scholarly literature, the ideal amount of time to set aside for a focus group is anywhere from 45 to 90 minutes. Beyond that most groups are not productive and it becomes an imposition on participant time.

Furthermore, focused groups are structured around a set of carefully predetermined questions, usually no more than 10, but the discussion is free flowing (Creswell, 2014). Ideally, participant comments will stimulate and influence the thinking and sharing of others. It takes more than one

focus group on any topic to produce valid results, usually three or four. You will know you have conducted enough groups (with the same set of questions) when you are not hearing anything new anymore, that is when you will know that you have reached a point of saturation.

In the case of this thesis regarding FGD's the researcher recruited the "Programme Officers" responsible for running programmes on the ground as study participants through the following criteria:

- ***Nomination:*** The researcher nominated Programme Officers from MYSC, who formed part of the study participants. Nominees selected were familiar with youth issues in Botswana, and they were willing to volunteer about 1-hour 30minutes of their time. They were all responsible for implementing government programmes under MYSC.
- ***Same role/job title:*** Participants were selected from the same job titles and this was done on the basis that the research believed that they were not intimidated by anyone senior than them.

5.8.3 Survey Questionnaire

Survey is concerned about describing a situation and not in-depth understanding of the meanings or experiences of respondents. Surveys generally address the question "what" and not how come or why. Therefore, surveys tend to use descriptive research designs. Characterized by distance between the researcher and the subjects, for example, the researcher does not have to be in a

natural setting to collect data. Survey can be done through mail, email, telephone, but to mention a few. A systematic questionnaire is used for data collection that is close ended and structured.

Hence, the survey researcher prepares the responses for questions ahead of time. The respondent only selects the responses that best suits his/her observation (see the questionnaire). Large numbers of respondents are selected using probability sampling techniques (n= 1000). Responses are numerically coded and analyzed statistically using (SPSS) Statistical Package for Social Scientists and other quantitative analysis data software's.

The findings from surveys can be generalized to the large population due to sampling procedures used and, on the ground, that the sample size is bigger. (We can't do this with qualitative research). The researcher is not necessarily the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. SPSS does the analysis. Respondents who are literate can fill the questionnaire on their own...besides, the questionnaire can be mailed. Notably, observation is not a critical component of surveys. There is no opportunity to probe or ask for clarification as responses are already coded for the respondent. Survey research report is characterized by figures, percentages, tables, graphical illustrations; whereas qualitative report is characterized by analysis of respondents' words and quotations with very few tables or graphical illustrations. Based on the foregoing, survey questionnaire was used for youth participants.

5.9 Data Collection Procedure

The permission to undertake the study was sought and granted from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development after obtaining the introductory letter from Graduate School of Social Sciences. Further permission was sought from the Heads of Departments in the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development after explaining the nature of the research and its main purpose of informing policy and research intervention as well as partial fulfilment of the Doctoral Degree award.

Upon getting permission from relevant ministry and departments, the researcher made arrangement with programmes implementers doing the job on the ground. Moreover, the programmes officers assisted the researcher with a list of young people (possible participants to be sampled) who have benefited from youth interventions meant to improve their livelihoods and job creation. The researcher went to all sampled respondents to capture their views, emotions, with the help of the tape recorder. As already indicated purposive and snowball sampling was used, which was useful to identify respondents who participated in the study.

5.10 Data Analysis

Data analysis is an act of interpreting the collected data for the purpose of drawing conclusions from the observations (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Analysis of data is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of highlighting useful information suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making (Babbie, 2007). Data analysis has multiple facets and approaches. Based on the foregoing, analysis in the study involved the use of

text or words; it also involved identification of key themes, drawing conclusions and making recommendations.

The first step involved organizing and preparing data for analysis. Thus, collected data was arranged according to study groups, and verbatim accounts of respondents. The raw data from the field was transcribed, sorted and arranged according to the different types of respondents. The researcher was aware that during transcribing data, there is a high chance that some data might be lost or might lose its meaning. Hence, the researcher took time to transcribe data diligently bearing in mind the already outlined weakness. The second step, which Newman (2007) refers to as familiarization, involved reading and re-reading the transcripts in order to become familiar with, and getting sense of the respondents' words.

The third step was coding, where raw data was combined into themes and categories. This made it easy to locate the data, making comparisons and identify patterns of responses. As recommended by Creswell (2003) and Ritchie & Lewis (2003) the themes were identified from study objectives. The themes and sub theme were helpful in discussion of the findings. The last step of analysis involved interpreting or drawing meanings out of the data. The researcher interpreted data based on the findings and information generated from the literature review, respondents and from the theory used in the study. According to Hakim (2000) respondents' own perceptions in terms of their beliefs, views, feelings, attitudes, interpretations, values and the meanings they assign to the experiences is the main basis for data analysis. Recommendations and conclusion of the research will then follow at the end.

5.11 Data Dissemination

Data dissemination is very important for future use or critique of the research project. Aina (2002) asserts that, it is important to share findings by disseminating them so that research peers can adjudge the research and understand the contribution of research to the body of knowledge. The researcher is aware that some research findings are not utilised for informing policy decisions and practice interventions in Botswana. Accordingly, there are many reasons contributing to the status quo, research carried out by students in academic institutions seem not to be used by relevant ministries because such research is small-scale studies and are mostly locality specific.

Therefore, based on the foregoing, a copy of any publication arising from this study will be shared with the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development; and with other relevant government ministries that have programmes and services targeting young people. Moreover, a copy of any publication arising from this research will be deposited in the UB Institutional Repository, as well as at the Botswana National Library Service, and the National Archives.

5.12 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are central issues in all measurement; both concerns how concrete measures are connected to constructs (Newman, 2007). Reliability and validity are salient because constructs in social theory are often ambiguous, diffuse, and not directly observable. All

social researchers want their measures to be reliable and valid. Both ideas are important in establishing the truthfulness, credibility, or believability of the findings.

5.12.1 Reliability

Joppe (2000) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time, and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. Golafshani (2003) further states that, validity and reliability are two factors which any qualitative researcher should be concerned about while designing a study, analysing results and judging the quality of the study. Thus the reliability is associated with instrument 's ability to produce the same result in more than one trail.

This relates to the concept of a good quality research when reliability is a concept to evaluate quality in quantitative study with a “purpose of explaining” while quality concept in qualitative study has the purpose of “generating understanding” (Stenbacka 2001). To ensure reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial. Seale (1999) note that, while establishing good quality studies through reliability and validity in quantitative research, the “trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability”.

According to Babbie (2010) central to reliability research is the concept of trust, can the results be trusted. This means dependability or consistency. It suggests that the same thing is repeated or

recurs under the identical or very similar conditions. The opposite of reliability is a measurement that yields erratic, unstable, or inconsistent results. Therefore based on the foregoing, this study availed all the details after data collection including: details of where the empirical research was conducted (i.e research site); who was researched (i.e, sample selection information); together with evidence of research sample population (i.e interviews and questionnaires); and what was discovered (i.e results, transcript of interviews, etc).

5.12.2 Validity

Joppe (2000) notes that, validity determine whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure and/or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? Evidence abounds that researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions and will often look for the answers in the research work of others. Moreover, Creswell & Miller (2000) suggest that, the validity is affected by the researcher's perception of validity in the study and his/her choice of paradigm assumption.

As a result, many researchers have developed their own concepts of validity and have often generated or adopted what they consider to be more appropriate terms, such as, quality, rigor and trustworthiness (Stenbacka, 2001, Davies & Dodd, 2002). Therefore, if the issues of reliability, validity, trustworthiness, quality and rigor are meant differentiating a 'good' from 'bad' research then testing and increasing the reliability, validity, trustworthiness, quality and rigor will be important to the research in any paradigm (Golafshani, 2003).

Robert (2011) notes that, valid research is a research that is acceptable to the research community. It suggests truthfulness and refers to the match between a construct, or the way a researcher conceptualizes the idea in a conceptual definition, and a measure. It refers to how well an idea about reality “fits” with actual reality (Newman, 2007). Newman further indicated that the absence of validity occurs if there is poor fit between the constructs a researcher uses to describe, theorize, or analyze the social world. In simple terms, validity addresses the question of how well the social reality being measured through research matches with the construct’s researchers use to understand it.

Therefore, based on the foregoing, this study is based on tried and tested research strategies and data collection techniques; adopts data analysis techniques that are deemed appropriate to the current research, all which have been implemented properly. It is also worth to note that the instruments were pre-tested on some volunteer youth and policy makers similar to the target population in Otse village. This was done to rephrase and modify some aspects of the questionnaire thus making it more suitable and comprehensible to the participants. It was handy to test suitability of the questionnaire and its clarity as that provided the researcher with an opportunity to edit the questions before the actual data collection.

It is also worth to note that several articles have been considered as a reference. The information contains in those articles enhanced the researcher’s knowledge regarding the topic and ensured that results were valid and reliable. Accordingly, the understanding of information was necessary to complete the study and the researcher read relevant literature as much as possible in order to

get clear understanding regarding the subject matter. In checking the trustworthiness of the study, several articles and research papers have been referred. For the government and official data, it was gathered from official website and compared with other scholarly sources to ensure that the data are reliable enough. Similarly, only the credible sources given in the articles were used, double checking with other related authors was also considered. The research questions and instruments used in data collection were verified to determine the reliability and validity. As a result, the instrument was considered to be valid for conducting the survey.

5.13 Ethical Consideration

Social research represents an intrusion into people's lives, it often requires people to reveal personal information about themselves and as such people should be protected (Babbie, 2007). Therefore, the researcher took it upon himself to protect the participants by observing the following ethical considerations.

5.13.1 Permission from the authority to undertake this study

Since, it is a requirement that everyone undertaking research in Botswana should obtain a research permit from the relevant arm of Government. Permission was sought and granted from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development before an attempt could be made for data collection, even at the pre-testing of the instruments stage.

5.13.2 Voluntary participation

The participants were fully informed that the study is voluntary and that they may choose to participate or not participate. They were not coerced into providing information, as such they were informed about the nature, purpose of the research, and how it could possibly benefit the public or the society in general.

5.13.3 Confidentiality

Whenever a research project is confidential or anonymous, it is the researcher's responsibility to make that fact clear to the participants (Babbie, 2007). The researcher assured the participants that all the information they provided will be kept confidential. To adhere to anonymity, information from each participant was analysed in such a way that it cannot be traced to any specific individual. For example, names of participants were not used rather they were assigned numbers instead.

5.13.4 No harm to participants

The researcher was committed to protecting the study participants from anything that would harm them, either physically or psychologically during the data collection. In a nutshell, the researcher negotiated with and explained to the youth participants and the key informants the nature and purpose of the research study. Informants were asked to complete the Informed consent form before they were interviewed. Both the key informants and individual youth had to expressly agree to take part in the study. To avoid deception an attempt was made to give research participants hindsight information about reasons for undertaking the study. Where the

respondents desired to understand aims of the study, they were given all the necessary responses by the researcher.

The researcher made sure that the information collected during the data collection was used purely for the academic purpose and nothing else. An attempt was made to respect respondents' ethical rights and avoid harming them psychologically, physically or emotionally. Ethical considerations were also observed by ensuring that research findings are presented appropriately without disclosing the identities of the youth participants. Conspicuously, pseudonyms were used for individuals, groups and organisations to ensure that anonymity is preserved. Some interviewees refused to be recorded and their views were respected.

5.14 Secondary Data

This section of methodology adopted a narrative approach using literature and document analysis. Available and reliable literature sources were systematically identified in electronic databases such as Google Scholar, EBSCO Discovery Services.

5.15 Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by the research design used that seeks to study situations as they occur in the environment. Participants particularly, the youth participants felt that they were exposing themselves too much. The researcher assured them of their confidentiality which was emphasized by requesting them not to write their names on the questionnaire. The researcher also encountered difficulties in tracing and accessing some participants especially (key

informants and programmes officers) led to consumption of too much time. In addition, some of the youth participants were also demanding to be paid in order to take part in the study even though they were aware that it was purely an academic study. The researcher also recognises some limitations in the design of the survey questionnaire, particularly those questions that should have permitted multiple responses and not restricted participants to marking only one answer.

5.17 Conclusion

This chapter outlined an overview of the methodology used in conducting this research. It highlighted the qualitative and quantitative nature of this study and justified the rationale for using mixed method. This section further described the data collection methods and rationalised the reasons behind the selection of the data collection instruments. The chapter also described the research design, study population, sample, and data collection techniques used. It also outlined the reasons for adopting various research strategies used in the study.

An outline of the steps taken to ensure the efficacy of the research has also been elaborated. The chapter further described the procedures taken to code, analyse, and present data. It further described the measures taken to ensure ethical compliance. Lastly, the ethical considerations governing this study were disclosed. The next chapter presents the research findings of this doctoral dissertation.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This section presents the findings of the study which was conducted in the Gaborone region covering (Gaborone, Ramotswa, Tlokweng and Mogoditshane) in Botswana. The data collection started on the 4th May 2019 and ended on the 30th of September 2019, and utilized mixed methods, being (qualitative and quantitative). For the quantitative method, self-administered questionnaires were used to collect data from youth participants who have benefited from the Youth Development Fund (YDF) under the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development, while for qualitative method, in-depth-face to face interviews were used to obtain information from programme officers as well as senior management under the same ministry.

To this end, the section presents both respondents' words and descriptive statistics as numeric data entry was utilized. Moreover, the chapter presents findings on the demographic characteristics of the participants; the motivation behind their YDF application; main benefits if any, that have been attained from the YDF; and what can be done for the YDF to have a significant impact on employment creation and the overall improvement of youth livelihoods in Botswana, taking into consideration the unprecedented proportion of youth unemployment in the African region.

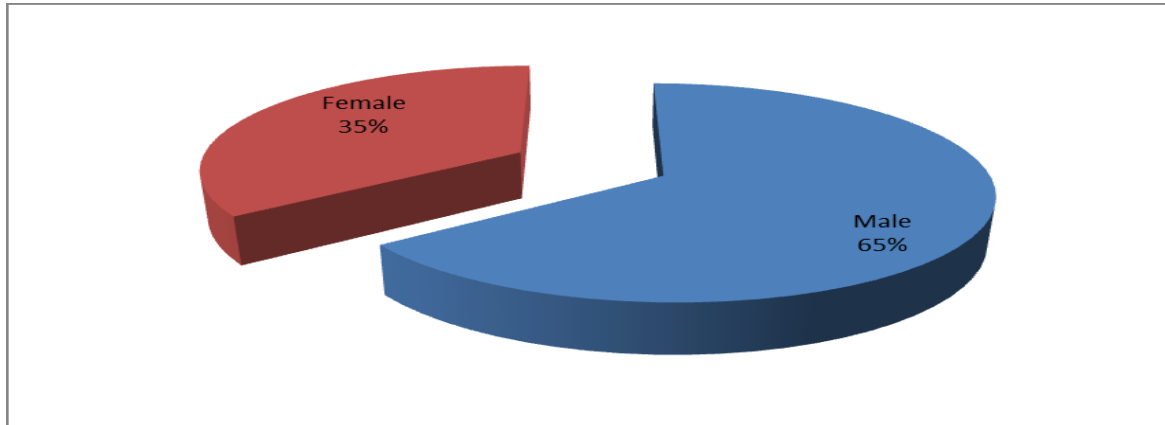
6.2 Challenges encountered during data collection

The researcher encountered several challenges during the data collection process. Firstly, since the data was collected in different locations, long distances were travelled in order to meet the participants, resulting in very high travelling costs. Secondly, all the participants in the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development were overwhelmed with too much work as they were preparing for the Annual Youth Exposition (YE) which was held in June, and the International Youth Day (IYD) which was held on the 12th of August. It is worth to note that the IYD began in the year 2000 and was organized by the United Nations to celebrate the contribution that young people make in education, employment, conflict resolution and social justice to name a few.

In Botswana, IYD is also held in August, as an initiative that celebrates the qualities of young people and recognizes the challenges that they face. Hence, Programme Officers in both districts were busy with the preparations and conducting orientations of the Youth Development Fund in their respect areas, therefore, several trips were made to their officers without success. As a result, the interviews took place a month after the initial scheduled dates. Lastly, administering survey questionnaires to the youth was also characterized with various challenges. For instance, sometimes the participants would betray the promise to be available and would fail to avail themselves. However, the researcher understood the importance of obtaining data to the overall study, and endeavoured despite the challenges faced.

6.3 Demographic Characteristics (Youth Participants)

Figure 1: Gender of participants



Source: Research Data

The study sought to identify the gender composition of the youth entrepreneurs who participated in the research. Hence, the above figure shows that 65% of the youth participants were male while females accounted for only 35% of the total. In this regard, the findings reveal a wide disparity between males and females in terms of business ownership and the Youth Development Fund.

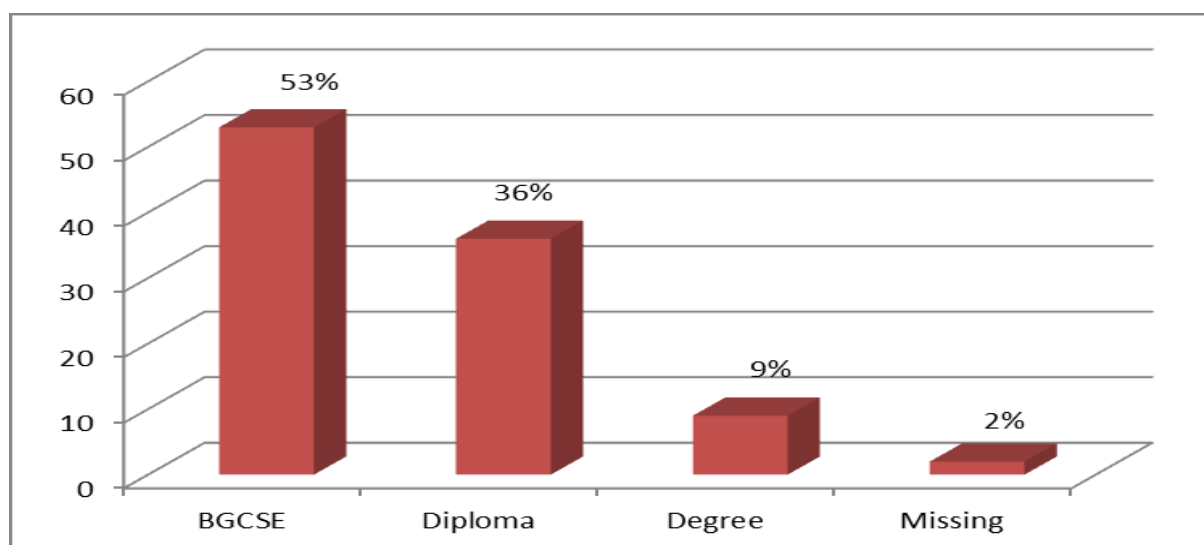
Table 1: Age of participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	21-25	7	7.0	7.1	7.1
	26-30	35	35.0	35.4	42.4
	31-35	35	35.0	35.4	77.8
	36+	22	22.0	22.2	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Source: Research Data

The study established the age distribution of the youth beneficiaries who participated in the research. Most respondents were in the age bracket of (26-30 years and 32-35 years) as both were represented by 35%, followed by participants who were 36 and above at 22%, and the age bracket 21-25 years constituted the lowest number of participants represented by 7% of the youth beneficiaries who took part in the study.

Figure 1: Educational level

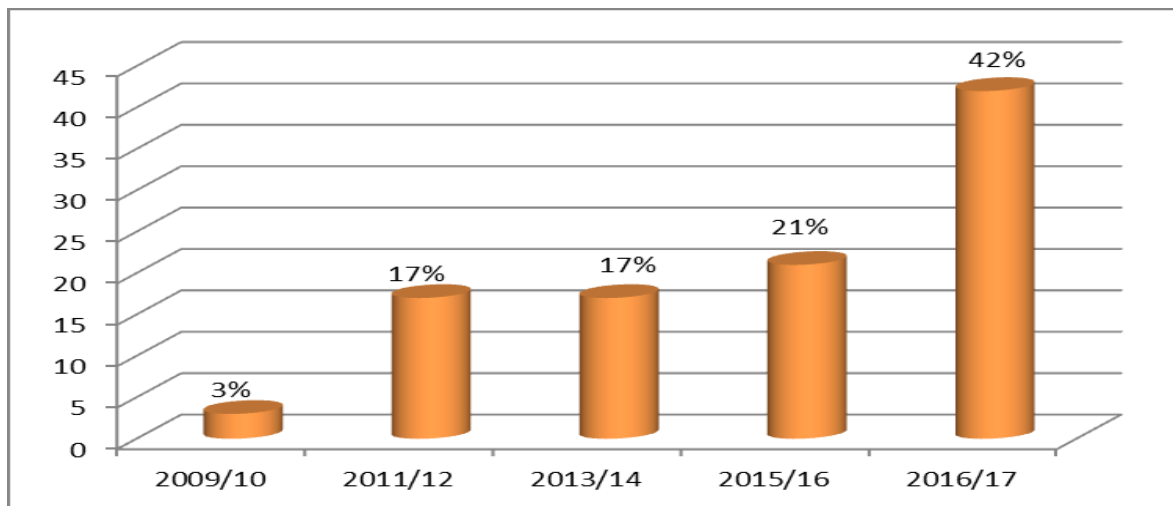


Source: Research Data

The study also sought to establish the level of education of youth participants. The findings reveal that a majority (53%) of the youth had attained a Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education. Those with tertiary education were represented by 36% of participants with a Diploma qualification and 9% of those holding bachelor's degree. It is apparent from the results that, of the participating young entrepreneurs only a minority had obtained Bachelor's Degree, therefore, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that the youthful graduates from tertiary institutions do not consider engaging in business as an option, but perhaps as a last resort.

EMERGING THEME PREDETERMINED UNDER YOUTH PARTICIPANTS

Figure 2: Funding year of participants



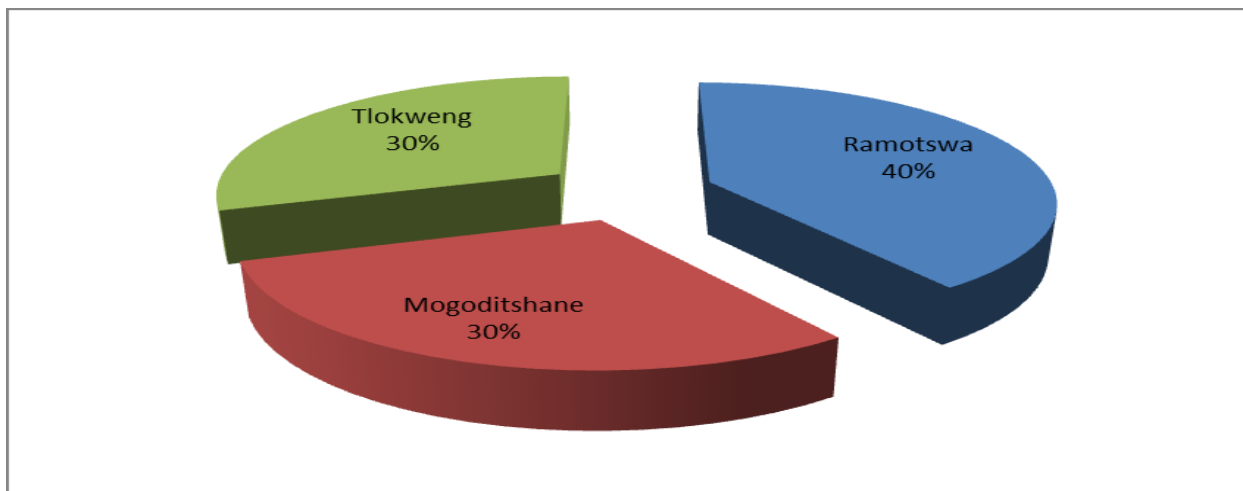
Source: Research Data

Regarding the year of funding, the study sought to establish the various years in which all beneficiaries were funded since inception of the Youth Development Fund programme in the financial year 2009/10. The results show that, only a minority (3%) of the youth fall in the

2009/10 funding year, whereas those funded in the 2011/12 and the 2013/14 funding years were each represented by 17% respectively.

Furthermore, 21% of participants were funded in the 2015/16 funding year and lastly, the majority of the youth (42%) fall in the 2017/18 funding year. It can therefore be deduced that despite the challenges faced by the youth's projects regarding the Youth Development Fund, the number of beneficiaries kept increasing over the years as shown in the study.

Figure 3: Location of participants



Source: Research Data

The study also sought to establish the location of the youth participants, where the findings depict that Ramotswa at 40% attracted the majority of youth beneficiaries as a viable business location, whereas businesses that are located in Mogoditshane and Tlokweng were each represented by 30%. The study could not interview any youth beneficiary in Gaborone, on the

based that the focus in Gaborone was mainly on the programme officers and key informants (senior management).

Table 2: Motivation for applying for the Youth Development fund

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Entrepreneurial aspiration	46	46.0	46.5	46.5
	Unemployment	36	36.0	36.4	82.8
	Improvement of livelihood	8	8.0	8.1	90.9
	Broadening career option	2	2.0	2.0	92.9
	Meeting community needs	3	3.0	3.0	96.0
	Last resort	4	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Source: Research Data

One of the questions asked in the study was about the reasons or motivation for applying for the YDF. A majority of 46% of the youth participants revealed that they applied for the YDF due to entrepreneurial aspirations, as unemployment presented itself as the second common reason for the YDF application at 36%. Following this were reasons such as an improvement of livelihood (8%), broadening career options (2%), meeting community needs (3%) and lastly applying for the YDF as a last resort (4%).

This is a clear depiction that most of the youth in participation might find this as the best way to venture into business, while some still apply for it due to high alarming unemployment rates that they are subjected to. Nonetheless, both reasons show that the YDF has been used to try to curb

the rising unemployment issue, and reasons such as improving their livelihoods, broadening their career options, meeting community needs and choosing the YDF as a last resort were not prominent reasons enough as compared to the other two.

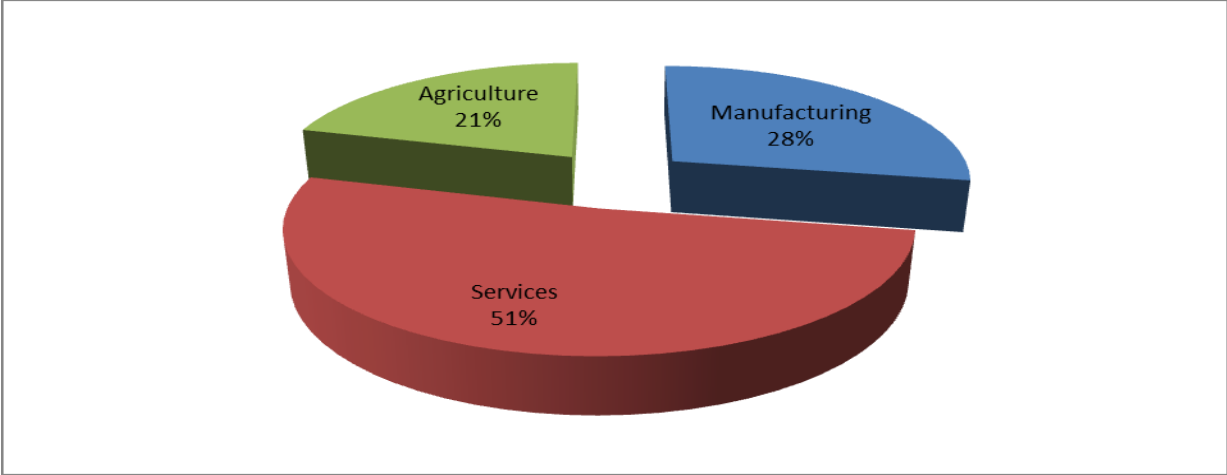
Table 3: Programme Awareness

		N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Q1 ^a	Social media	26	15.5%	26.3%
	Newspapers	22	13.1%	22.2%
	TV/Radio broadcasts	33	19.6%	33.3%
	MYSC information session	29	17.3%	29.3%
	Political representation	18	10.7%	18.2%
	Family and friends	40	23.8%	40.4%
Total		168	100.0%	169.7%

Source: Research Data

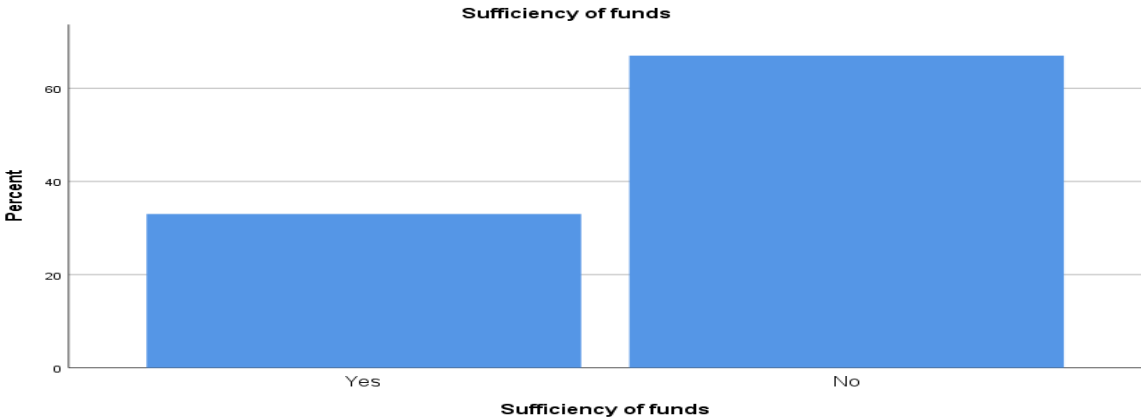
The above table shows programme awareness, revealing how participants came to know about the Youth Development Fund and other programmes under the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development. A majority of the participants (23%) indicated that they heard about the programme from family and friends, followed by National Television and Radio Broadcast at 20%, then MYSC information session at 17%, social media at 16%, newspapers at 13% and lastly political representation at 11%. This shows a high reliance on family and friends to give information on programme awareness.

Figure 4: Type of business operated by youth participants



The above figure indicates the type of business operated by the participants. A majority (51%) of the participants are into services, followed by the manufacturing sector which is represented by (28%) and Agricultural sector represented by 21%. This might show that although there is a disparity among these figures, there is still a certain level of diversity in terms of the types of business and/or sector that the participants are involved in.

Figure 5: Sufficiency of the funds



Source: Research Data

The study sought to get opinions from participants on whether the funds allocated to them when they started their businesses were enough or not. Based on the above figure, most participants represented by 67%, indicated that the funds were not sufficient. Notably, 33% of participants stated that the funds were enough for them to kick-start their enterprises.

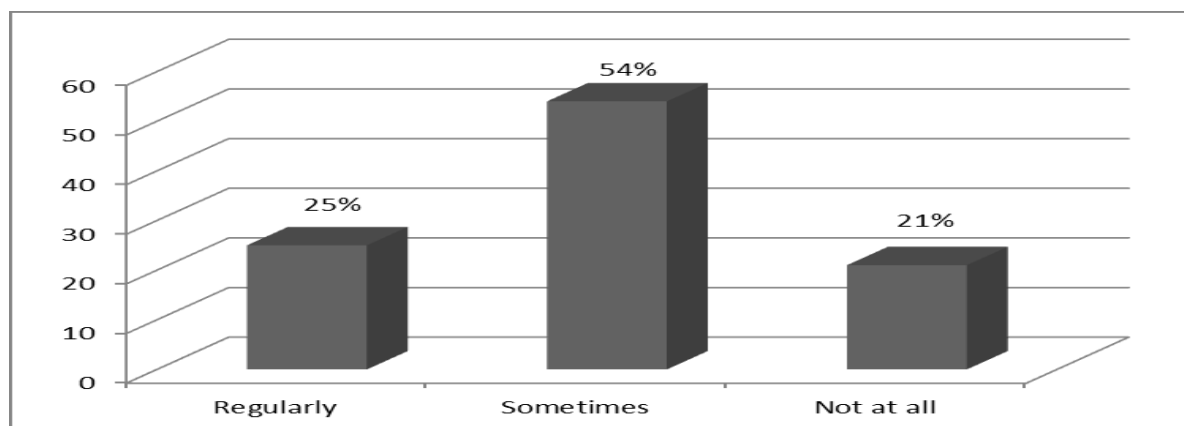
Table 4: Duration of business in operation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than a year	26	26.0	26.0	26.0
	1-2 years	20	20.0	20.0	46.0
	3-4 years	22	22.0	22.0	68.0
	5 years +	32	32.0	32.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Data

As indicated in the above figure, a majority of participants (32%) revealed that they have been in operation for a period of more than five years, followed by 26% of participants who stated that they had operated their businesses for a period of less than a year. This was then followed by 22% who had been in operation for three to four years, while those who had operated for between one to two years constituted (20%).

Figure 6: Loan repayment



Source: Research Data

The study also sought to establish whether beneficiaries are repaying the loan component as a requirement of the Memorandum of Agreement which they signed with the Government of Botswana, represented by Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development. From the above figure, a majority represented by 54% proclaim that they repay the loan sometimes, followed by 25% of the participants, who indicated that they repay the loan regularly, and while 21% affirmed that they do not pay the loan at all.

Table 5: Existence of the business

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	88	88.0	91.7	91.7
	No	8	8.0	8.3	100.0
	Total	96	96.0	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Source: Research Data

The table above shows business existence of participants. A greater number of participants represented by 88% expressed that their businesses are still in existence, whereas only a minority represented by 8% disclosed that their businesses are no longer in operation. Noticeably, there is a missing value represented by 8%, who did not state whether their businesses were still in operation or not.

Table 6: Current challenges of the business

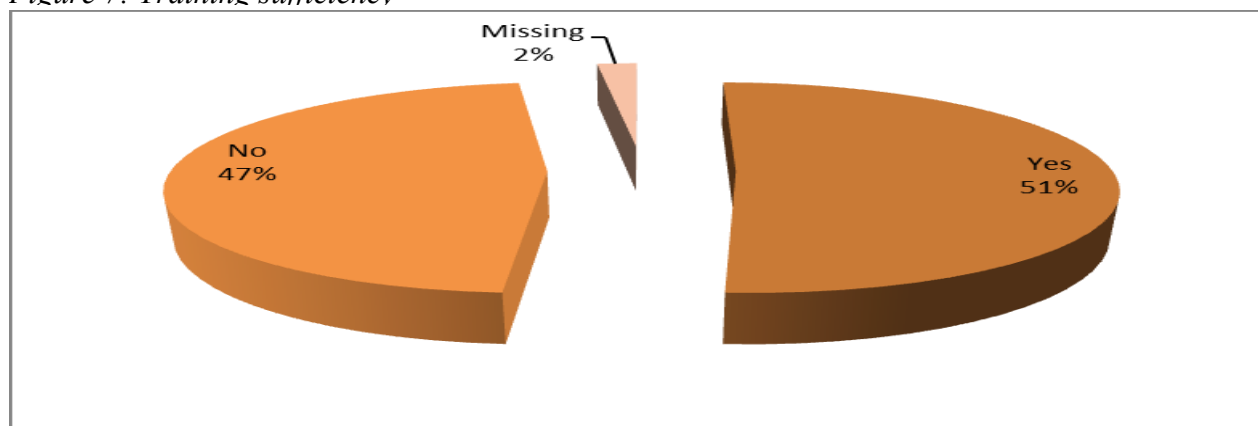
		Responses		
		N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Q1 ^a	Shortage of funds	21	10.7%	25.0%
	High competition	33	16.8%	39.3%
	Limited management skills	8	4.1%	9.5%
	Poor financial literacy	12	6.1%	14.3%
	Fund mismanagement	8	4.1%	9.5%
	High operational costs	31	15.7%	36.9%
	High production costs	24	12.2%	28.6%
	Lack of motivation	1	0.5%	1.2%
	Lack of market knowledge	6	3.0%	7.1%
	Unreliable suppliers	12	6.1%	14.3%
	Lack of MYSC support	27	13.7%	32.1%
	Lack of service provider support	11	5.6%	13.1%
	Others	3	1.5%	3.6%
Total	197	100.0%	234.5%	

Source: Research Data

The results in table 6 shows that a large number of participants represented revealed that high competition (17%) and high operational costs (16%) are the immediate impediment they face. Furthermore, high production costs (12%), lack of support from MYSC (14%), shortage of funds (11%), and Poor financial literacy and unreliable suppliers are each represented by 6%. Lack of

motivation from beneficiaries is not a factor as it only represented by an insignificant minority (0.5%).

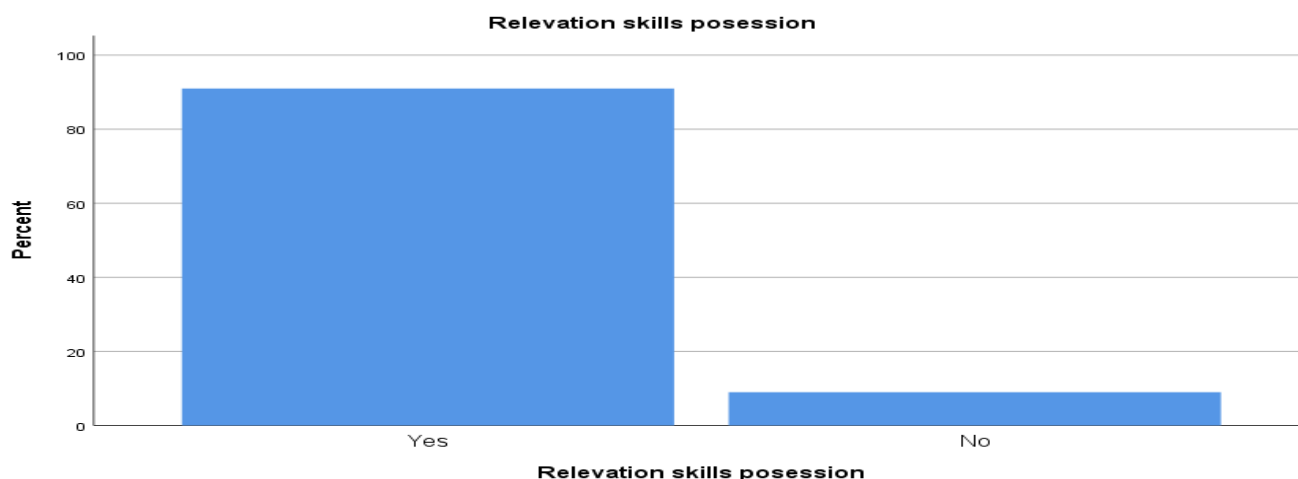
Figure 7: Training sufficiency



Source: Research Data

Of all the participants under the study, a slight majority of 51% agreed that they received sufficient training in the YDF programme while a significant minority of 47% disagreed. This minor difference between the two groups of respondents presents that those who do not see the training as significant enough must not be ignored and such a case should be taken into consideration during monitoring and evaluating of this programme. Lastly, only 2% of participants neither agreed nor disagreed to the sufficiency of the YDF programme training.

Figure 8: Knowledge and skills prior to running the business



Source: Research Data

Possessing certain skills needed to run a business is imperative for its sustainability. In this study, there is a striking disparity between those who mentioned that they had the required knowledge and skills prior to running their business (91%) and those who did not (9%). Therefore, this may show that most youth participants know the nature of their businesses enough to take it further while a few are yet to attain the required knowledge and skills in this regard.

Table 7: Employment creation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
None	27	27.0	27.0	27.0
1-5	69	69.0	69.0	96.0
6-10	4	4.0	4.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Research Data

The table above depicts that out of the participants under study, only a handful of 4% employed 6 to 10 people, while a high 69% had only 5 to 10 employees and 27% did not create

employment. In this regard, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that most youth businesses courtesy of the YDF are able to create employment despite the existence of a few that do not have employment opportunities.

In addition, having 1 – 5 employees may reveal that most youth beneficiaries seem to operate on an extremely small scale, still maintain the suggestion that unemployment in Botswana may continue to be on the rise in the future.

Table 8: Main benefits attained from the programme

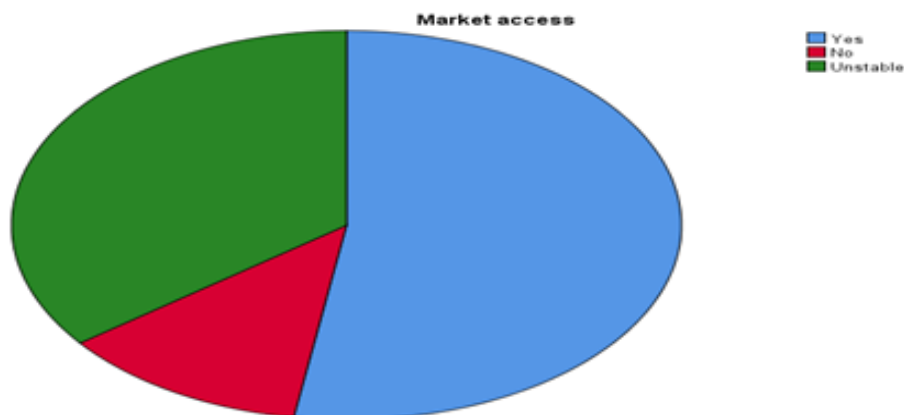
		Responses		
		N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Q1 ^a	Economic assets acquisition	21	18.6%	21.4%
	Meeting basic needs	61	54.0%	62.2%
	Health care access	2	1.8%	2.0%
	Meeting educational needs	8	7.1%	8.2%
	No livelihood improvement	21	18.6%	21.4%
Total		113	100.0%	115.3%

Source: Research Data

Under the five options of benefits presented to the youth participants, a majority of 61% revealed that the main benefit attained as YDF beneficiaries is that they were able to meet their basic needs. This was followed by 21% who mentioned that they were able to acquire assets such as a house or a car, while another 21% mentioned otherwise (no livelihood improvement) and an insignificant minority of 8% and 2% showed that their main benefits were to meet educational

needs and access health care facilities respectively. This may lead to the suggestion that running a business courtesy of the YDF is a way to enhance and/or improve the standard of living of young people who may not be able to acquire a decent source of employment.

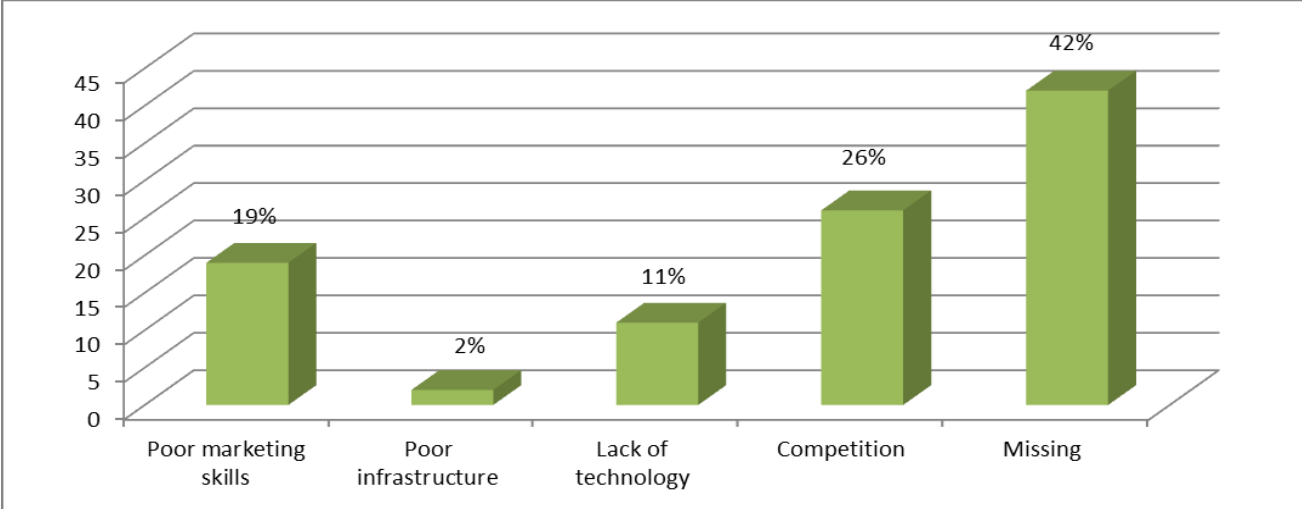
Figure 9: Market accessibility



Source: Research Data

When asked about their ability to access their target markets, 52% of the youth participants were able to do so, while 12% disagreed and 35% revealed that they were dealing with market instability due to a number of reasons. However, only 1% neither revealed that they were able to access their target market or not, nor deal in an unstable market. This might depict that the beneficiaries do not face impediments in terms of accessing their target market.

Figure 10: Factors for market inaccessibility



Source: Research Data

For those who stated their inability to access their respective target markets, industry competition (44.8%) was the highest reason behind that, followed by 32.8% who revealed that they had poor marketing skills for their respective businesses. On this note, only 19% lacked the required technology needed to run specific business operations while an insignificant 3.4 % did not have good infrastructure in which their business could run optimally.

In this regard, it is credible to assume that the more competition in a certain industry heightens, the less chance there are for a youth business and/or start up to succeed in accessing its target market. Furthermore, the lack of good infrastructure may not be the main cause of market inaccessibility, if of less concern to the youth participants.

Table 9: Has the intervention met youth expectations

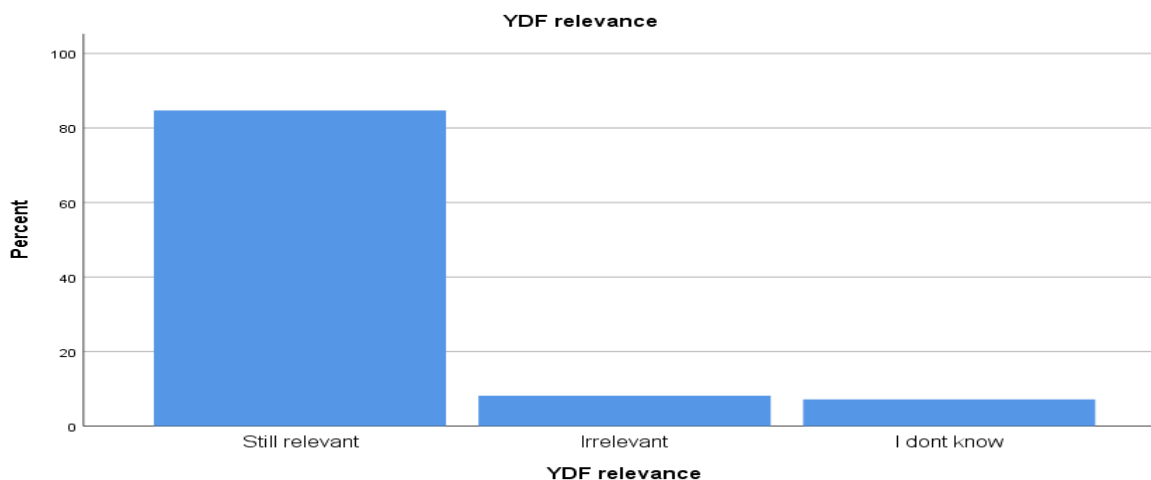
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent

Valid	Very little extent	65	65.0	65.7	65.7
	Very great extent	30	30.0	30.3	96.0
	None	4	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	99	99.0	100.0	
	Missing	1	1.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Source: Research Data

One of the questions asked to the YDF beneficiaries was whether the programme met, exceeded or did not meet their expectations. Therefore, the results of the study reveal that a significant number of 65% of these beneficiaries prove that YDF hardly met their expectations to assist them in doing business, followed by 30% of those who believed it to have met their expectations and only 4% that neither had their expectations met or not prior to being YDF beneficiaries.

Figure 11: Intervention relevance



Source: Research Data

The last question pertained to whether the youth participants believed that the YDF was still relevant after receiving the funding. Out of all these participants, a large majority of 84.7% gave a positive response that the programme was still relevant while only 8% considered it as irrelevant and 7% could not come to a conclusion in this regard.

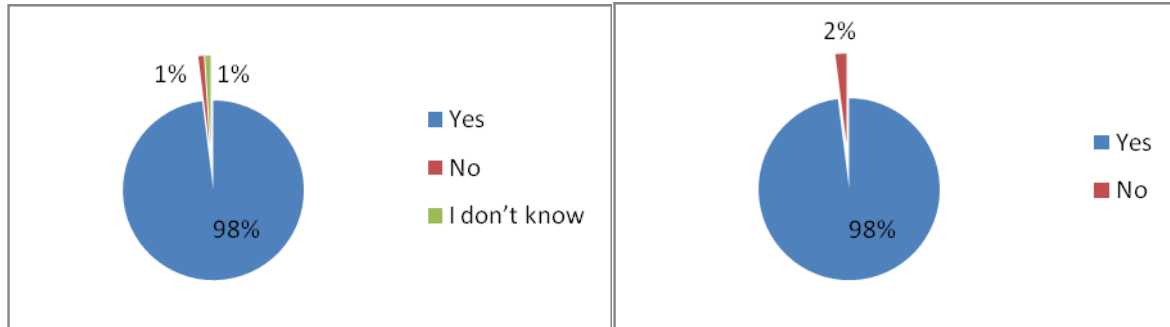
6.4 Magnitude of youth unemployment

It should be noted that though this question was asked in an interview, the researcher opted to analyse it using SPSS in order to capture it in the form of frequency and tabulation. However, the rest of the questions for programme officers and the key informants, the researcher analysed the participants' verbatim response qualitatively.

Figure 12: The magnitude of youth unemployment

Programmes Officers

Key informants



Source: Research Data

The pie charts above shows the various participants' views on youth unemployment in Botswana. In responding to a question that established whether youth unemployment in Botswana an issue of concern is, 98% (thus almost all the participants) reported that youth unemployment is an issue of concern in Botswana. Furthermore, only an insignificant minority represented by 1% each indicated that youth unemployment is not an issue of concern, and the other 1% stated that they do not know whether youth unemployment is an issue of concern.

Still on the same question, 98% of key informants indicated that youth unemployment is an issue of concern. It is therefore reasonable to assume that youth unemployment may be a cross cutting issue in Botswana as acknowledged by these two groups of participants.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE RESULTS

7.1 Introduction

This section presents the results of the qualitative data results that were collected from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development officials comprising, programmes officers and senior management. The data was collected between the 5th of June and 30th of September 2019 in Gaborone, Botswana. It should be emphasized that the senior management officials have been referred as the key informants throughout the study. Both the key informants and the programme officers were chosen mainly based on their expertise, experience and direct influence in the policy implementation matrix. On this note, the data was collected through in-depth face to face interviews with the help of a tape recorder. It is of utmost importance to note that during these interviews, several themes emerged.

Conspicuously, the themes include; inter alia, magnitude of youth unemployment, youth development programmes implemented by the MYSC, activities carried out to implement National Youth Policy, monitoring and evaluation of youth development programmes, measures to ensure promoting sustainable livelihoods, government strategies to deal with implementation challenges, coping strategies by the Ministry Officials, addressing the concerns of the youth, and suggestions to those responsible for developing and implementing youth programmes.

7.2 Demographic details

Table 10: Gender of participants

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Key informants</i>	<i>Programmes Officers</i>	Total
Male	10	8	18
Female	15	12	27
Total	25	20	45

Source: Research Data

The above table illustrates the gender distribution of the participants, who were divided into two sections comprising, key informants and programmes officers. As the table depicts, there were more female participants represented in this section than their male counterparts, which is shown by a high frequency of 27 females as opposed to 18 males.

Table 11: Age of respondents

<i>Age</i>	<i>Key informants</i>	<i>Programmes Officers</i>
50 and above	9	-
40 – 49 years	10	3
30- 39 years	2	15
20 -29 years	-	2

Source: Research Data

The study established the age distribution of the MYSC officers who participated. Under key informants, most participants were in the age bracket of 40-49 years and 50 years and above. The age bracket 30-39 years constituted the lowest number of participants under key informants.

Regarding Programmes Officers (PO), most participants were in the age bracket of 30-39 years represented by 15. The results may provide evidence to the effect that seniority in terms of age is taken into consideration for leadership positions in many if not all government ministries and departments.

Table 12: Participants levels of education

<i>Education</i>	<i>Key informants</i>	<i>Programmes Officers</i>	<i>Total</i>
Doctorate	-	-	-
Masters	8	2	10
Bachelors	17	18	35
Diploma	-	-	-
Certificate	-	-	-

Source: Research Data

The study also sought to establish the level of education of participants of which the findings reveal that most of them (35) had attained a bachelor's degree; followed by 10 with master's degree. In each of these two levels, a majority of them are key informants. Based on this, it is apparent from the results that the government considers high education for one to be employed in the public sector and unemployed young people with certificates and diploma holders are facing a mammoth challenge to be employed in the public service.

Table 13: Duration in the Ministry

Period	Key informants	Programmes Officers	Total
20 years and above	2	-	2
10 – 19 years	13	9	22
5 – 9 years	9	7	16
Less than 5 years	1	4	5

Source: Research Data

Regarding work duration in the MYSC, the results depict that most of the participants in both of these positions have been working for 10 – 19 years, as represented by a total of 22. This is followed by participants who have worked for 5 – 9 years in the same ministry and those who have worked for less than 5 years are presented by 5, and lastly 2 key informants who have worked for more than 20 years.

7.3 Emerging Themes

It should be pointed that based on the findings, certain emerging themes were discovered as follows; main contributing factors to youth unemployment, youth development programmes implemented by the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development, policy documents and activities carried out to implement the National Youth Policy, but just to mention a few. Let us consider the themes below.

7.3.1 Main contributing factors of Youth Unemployment

The study found that both programmes officers and key informants identified limited job opportunities as the main contributing factor to youth unemployment in the country. This emanates from statements made by most programmes officers highlighting this fact. Moreover, stunted growth of the private sector was also indicated by programmes officers as the least cause of youth unemployment, of which one participant corroborated this by stating that:

“There are many contributing factors to youth unemployment in Botswana. First of all the government is the major employer and when the government freezes positions the youth are the first group to be hit hard. Secondly, our economy relies heavily on diamonds, and since we do not do any value addition of our diamonds, it means that only a few people can be employed in the mining sector. Lastly, it is also hard for graduates to secure employment immediately after completing their studies because employers demand work experience which most youth do not possess”.

In addition, another participant had this to say:

“There is a skills mismatch between university graduates and what the employers want. For instance, what the youth have been trained to do in university is not always what the potential employer in the job market is looking for”

7.3.2 Youth development programmes implemented by the MYSC

The study sought to establish whether or not the participants are fully aware of the youth development programmes implemented by the MYSC, aimed to addressing high unprecedented proportions of youth unemployment in Botswana. The results revealed that most participants were fully aware of the youth development programmes implemented by their Ministry, which are as follows; MYSC grants, Youth Development Fund, Arts and Culture Competitions, Constituency Sports tournaments, Botswana National Service Programme, Botswana National Service Programme, Graduate Volunteer Schemes.

However, it is noteworthy to indicate that among these participants, some of the key informants expressed different views stating that the ministry does not seem to be doing a lot in terms of programmes awareness owing to the fact that people only know the Youth Development Fund as compared to other programmes that are mentioned above. This was backed up by one key informant who stated that:

“I think as a Ministry, there is still a lot of work that needs to be done. I have been working in this Ministry for 7 years, but I have come to realize that other programmes are suffering because it appears as if they are not priorities of the political leadership. As a result, this ministry is only known for disbursing funds under the Youth Development Fund.”

On the same note, one participant also stated that:

“We used to have 5 Departments under the MYSC namely, the Department of Youth, Department of Arts and Culture, Department of Sports and Recreation, National Library Services, and Department of Achieves. However, the ministry management opted to re-structure the ministry in 2014 and these departments were dissolved, and the officer’s titles were changed from Youth Officers, Arts and Culture Officers into Programmes Officers.”

7.3.3 Policy documents and activities carried out to implement the National Youth Policy

The study results indicate that most of the key informants are aware of policy instruments as compared to programmes officers. This result may provide evidence that the people responsible to implement the policies are not aware of the policies that are guiding them. Rather, they are only aware of the programmes that are available in the Ministry. Therefore, it can be deduced from the results that, perhaps that is the main reason as to why the ministry is not able to deal with the realities facing young people on the ground.

The policy instruments as cited by key informants comprise of the following;

National Policy on Youth (2010)

National Action Plan on Youth (2010)

Presidential Directive CAB 14 (B)/2015

Permanent Secretary, MIST Savingram-MIST 2/76/1 VI (71) of 7 May 2014

Local Procumbent Scheme (Presidential Directive CAB 19(B)/2013

CAB25 (B) 2017

7.3.4 Monitoring and evaluation of youth development programmes

This research wanted to find out the frequency with which monitoring and evaluation are done. In this case, this question was aimed at programmes officers who are responsible for undertaking such exercises, as per the guidelines of various youth development and empowerment instruments. Evidently, a recurring theme on monitoring and evaluation tools was the ministry's emphasis laid on the writing of monthly, quarterly and annual reports which track all youth development and empowerment programmes. It is expected that monitoring and evaluation are done through outreach and on-site observations by the ministry officers who should then write and submit weekly reports to their superiors.

Furthermore, these officers must carry out periodic field visits to the beneficiaries making assessments on whether their projects are still operation or nor. However, it came out from the findings that the monitoring of youth programmes is done in a sporadic manner. Many times, it is not planned, but even when it is so, the programmes officers may fail to undertake and/or undergo the monitoring of projects. Therefore, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that, it appears as if monitoring of youth programmes is not a priority to the officers responsible for performing such a task.

One key informant emphasized that:

“There are many programmes under the ministry, however, regarding Youth Development Fund projects, most of our officers on the ground do not have the capacity to do a thorough monitoring of funded projects, and therefore, cannot tell if the project is doing well or not. On

the other hand, monitoring is not consistent; a project can go for a year without being monitored”

In addition, the findings also show that most of the respondents were of the view that the people responsible for conducting the monitoring are not capacitated enough to successfully and effectively implement the programmes. This was confirmed by a concern which has been noted showing that most programmes officers do not have the right skills and competences to implement programmes, especially Youth Development Fund projects.

Notably, an insignificant minority of the key informants’ participants (4/25) indicated that programmes officers are doing a thorough job with regards to the monitoring and implementation even though there is room for improvement.

To substantiate the above finding, one participant stated that:

“The officers are doing a thorough job with the limited resources they have at their disposal. However, more can still be done by follow up and closing projects and availing resources in terms of vehicles because that is one of the major impediments when it comes to monitoring of programmes.”

Regarding the evaluation of programmes, almost all key informants participants indicated that there has never been any impact assessment/evaluation of the current youth interventions programmes. This has been proven by the fact that a majority (19/25) asserts that, there has never been any evaluation undertaken, followed by a minority of (4/25) who said they do not know

whether there has been any monitoring done, and insignificant minority of (2/25) indicated that there has been an impact assessment which was done specifically on the Youth Development Fund. Remarkably, the same study participants elicited so many responses when probed further as to why there has never been any impact assessment of youth development interventions, in particular the Youth Development Fund programme. To further corroborate the foregoing, one participant said that:

“There has never been any impact assessment of many youth intervention programmes due to unsound management that is not results oriented.”

One of the two participants who indicated that monitoring has been done, had this to say:

“If I recall very well, the Youth Development Fund was evaluated in 2015 but the findings were not shared with Districts across the entire nation, as well as the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development Head Office. As a result, we are not able to tell whether the programme is attaining its intended results or not”.

As per the information obtained during data collection, the summary of the monitoring and evaluation strategies assessing the implementation of the youth policy in the districts in Botswana is given below:

- Periodic field visits to projects
- Reports (monthly, quarterly and annually)
- Formative and Summative evaluations for funded projects

- Workshops with youth concerning discussing challenges faced
- Community outreach programmes for evaluation

7.3.5 Involvement of officers in the conceptualization of youth interventions

The study sought to establish whether the officers responsible for administering youth interventions are involved in the programme's conceptualization and formulation stages. In this regard, the study findings show that most participants (both key informants and programmes officers) reported that they are not involved in the conceptualization of youth interventions. Only a minority of the participants indicated that they are involved in the formulation and conceptualization of youth interventions, and those were key informants. Upon this discovery participants negated their involvement in this process, to which one participant corroborated the above finding by stating that:

“Unfortunately, the policies and regulations of programme implementation are done at a high level of authority and most of the time; our ideas at a lower level are not considered when developing these programmes”

Furthermore, another participant reported that:

“To a larger extent, no! We have had ideas of how the programme can be improved but not much has changed. Therefore, it is safe to make it categorically clear that we are not part of the

conceptualization. It can even be worse, where we are told by potential and existing youth beneficiaries that the ministry has introduced something that they saw on the daily newspaper. This situation is embarrassing on the basis that some vital information is shared to media platforms without officers being made aware of the changes made”.

On the same note, one more participant also stated that:

“We are not involved, these programmes are done by people at the top and there are no consultations with us as officers implementing these programmes. At times I wonder if the reports we report monthly are taken into consideration or not. Even when we are called to come up with suggestions in some forums, our immediate supervisors will suppress us; they would not want us to speak in such gatherings”

Finally, the last participants had this to say:

“To be honest with you, we are not involved at all and that is discouraging most of us with ideas on how youth programmes can be modified and improved going forward. I long, heard about youth programmes before working in the ministry of youth. Upon my appointment, I had so many brilliant ideas on how the programmes can be improved. However, I was discouraged when other officers told me that they have long suggested modifications but their suggestions were not taken into considerations”

On the flip side, however, one of the minorities of the participants who indicated that they are involved had this to say:

“Yes, we are involved on the basis that sometimes we do one on one consultation with beneficiaries to try to advise them on what needs to be done in order to have a successful business.”

To a great extent, it should be pointed out that the above respondent might have understood the question from a different standpoint altogether, meaning that by their involvement with the youth beneficiaries on the ground means that they are involved in the conceptualization in some way based on their monthly/annual reports.

The key informants participants were asked how they obtain information that informs them in terms of coming up with programmes that are run by their ministry in relation to the improvement of the livelihoods of the youth. In response to this, many of the study participants indicated that they have a research unit in the ministry, and when probed further, they indicated that the unit hardly shares research information with them or with the District Coordinators in many districts across the country.

One of the participants had this to say:

“I would say that in the public service, most of the policy relevant information is generated internally, by way of financial and administrative information such as program reports, and

policy briefings. Therefore, though we utilise suggestions from the reports, it is not possible that we will always have to write to the districts the changes that we made. Hence, we end up using the government media to communicate such information to our officers”

Notably, it should be emphasized that some of the participants reported that most of the decisions that are made are debated at the senior management and at the end those decisions come from the top; hence they have no say in relation to what can be done. On this note, one participant substantiated this by stating that:

“Research results often need to be contested, debated and tested again before a consensus can be reached on the recommendations needed for policy and practice. Even then many obstacles remain. Policy processes are very rarely linear and logical, simply presenting research results to policymakers and expecting them to put the evidence into practice is very unlikely to work.”

The study wanted to establish constraints influencing the use of social research in the public service. Most of the participants reported that there was insufficient time for them to peruse research results conducted by external researchers, as they felt that is not a priority for them looking at the reality that they are already overwhelmed with too much work. On another note, other participants felt that research that is conducted by non-governmental bodies is mostly small-scale, locality specific, and as result, it cannot be used for policy purposes unless it is a national study. In this manner, one of the participants stated:

“Sometimes, the data collected by academics and other external players leads to conflicting conclusions, and this certainly does not help in policy making. Although some contradictory conclusions are related to the poor quality of research, it is also equally true that contradictory research conclusions are related to different methodological approaches and research designs. I think this barrier will only be addressed if there is a systematic process of understanding the research and its assumptions.”

Still on the constraints of influencing the use of social research, one participant had this to say:

“There is a challenge with building relationships with external researchers on the basis that research findings and recommendations that run counter with government policies are not normally utilized to inform policy in the government enclave.”

Given these findings, it can be said that there is a glaring gap which points to the need for future research to explore the role of knowledge-based activities in potentially raising the level of research awareness and research use in the public service. The study wanted to establish what can be done to capacitate senior management in the public service on academic research utilization. The results revealed that more should be done focusing on capacity building at the individual level, partly through workshops and training courses on research and development.

One participant corroborated this by stating that:

“Substantial improvement in the use of research-based evidence in development policy and practice requires effort at the institutional level because that will be aimed at improving organizational structures, processes, resources, management and governance issues so that the government can be able to attract, train and retain capable staff.”

One participant indicated that those responsible for conducting research seem not to be doing enough in terms of sharing their results with the government ministries. The participant reported that:

“Researchers wishing to maximize the impact of their work have to attract the interest of policymakers and practitioners and then convince them that a new policy or different approach is valuable and foster the behavioural changes necessary to put them into practice. That’s the only way they can make impact in the public service.”

Still on the capacity development on academic research utilization, one participant stated that:

“The government lacks the capacity to do in-house research which is a serious challenge on the grounds that it is unable to develop research agendas or to outsource research. Moreover, within many government ministries, the government lacks research and sector specialists with technical knowledge to conduct the required research that would assist in the development of policies and strategies”.

7.3.6 Understanding of the term's youth development and empowerment

It should be pointed out that the finding highlights that, little is known about youth development and empowerment within the MYSC. This question was asked to programme officers who implement youth intervention programmes. Surprisingly, every participant defined the youth development and empowerment differently with a lot of different quotations, which was appalling on the grounds that these are the people that are expected to facilitate a smooth implementation of youth programmes in order to develop and empower young people. Below are the responses from the participants:

One programmes officer participant said:

“Youth empowerment means a structural process that would enable the youth to take charge of their lives either social, economically or even culturally. Whereas, youth development means the processes that prepare the youth to cope and survive challenges that comes with adult life. Some of these challenges include unemployment.”

One participant had this to say:

“Youth development- any initiative that aims at improving youth's life's such that they become self-reliant. Youth empowerment- is an intention to lure youth to be able to take charge of their lives. Through addressing their challenges and taking appropriate policy action as government”

It is worth to note that based on the findings, it can be said that some participants totally displayed lack of knowledge of what the two terms entail. This is illustrated below:

According to one participant:

“Well, let me emphasis that we do not have a standard definition or the same understanding and/or interpretations when it comes to a number of words used in my workplace. Therefore, regarding the two terms, I will just be basing my answer on my own understanding. I think youth empowerment means to give someone power or knowledge to pursue something while youth development means creating something more advanced.”

Furthermore, one had this to say:

“When we are employed, we are not informed about youth development and empowerment, rather we are told about the processes of the government. Therefore, I am not even sure whether my answer is correct, however, I think that youth development and youth empowerment mean empowering and developing youth holistically in all thematic areas”

Considering the above findings, one can conclude that the lack of consistency in these responses is quite alarming, given the fact that these are the very individuals who are authorized to take a major in the conceptualization, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of any project that aims to develop and empower the youth.

7.3.7 Challenges facing the implementation of youth programmes

The results demonstrate that there are many fundamental challenges facing the implementation of youth programmes in Botswana. In this regard, a majority of both the key informants and programmes officers reported that the main challenge faced is a lack of effective monitoring, while second challenge which was cutting across was political interference. Furthermore, the participants lamented the interference of politics and inadequate resources in ensuring effective implementation of youth programmes.

The other challenges noted are related to communication, transport, and resources as well as understaffing which makes the policy initiatives impractical. Lastly, the participants also talked about lack of coordination of youth programmes as one of the impediments to successful programme implementation. On this note, one participant reported that:

“Government ministries and departments are highly individualised and there seems to be little investment in joint information. This makes it virtually impossible for the relevant ministry to effectively monitor and coordinate youth programmes. Failure of youth programmes can be attributed to fragmentation where there is a lack of inter-sectoral collaboration or a holistic approach to address several challenges facing the youth. The effect of operating in a compartmentalised manner is duplication of activities and dilution of scarce administrative capacity”.

One other participant emphasized that:

“There is very little coordination and synergy between user departments and in most cases, no monitoring and evaluation of youth projects, with a view to ensuring that the programmes deliver on the set of the objectives Youth Development Fund. Therefore, there is a lot that needs to be done by all government ministries that aim to develop and empower the youth”.

Moreover, still on the main challenges facing successful implementation of youth programmes, one participant had this to say:

“We are facing a lot of challenges as a ministry when it comes to programme implementation. For instance, regarding the Youth Development Fund, there is a shortage of qualified staff on entrepreneurship development and the Memorandum of Agreement is not binding to the non-payment of loan components as a result there is high rated of defaulters.”

On the same note, one participant also stated that:

“There is an overall shortage of staff resulting in very little monitoring of youth programmes, shortage of funds to fully support youth businesses to get returns on investment, lack of cooperation from the most funded youth once the project has taken off, and a lack of commitment from the youth who have benefited from programmes, hence resulting in collapse of projects”.

From the findings, it can be deduced that these are the major challenges facing government initiatives; unclear objectives and targets, poor programme design, lack of coordination, lack of

monitoring and evaluation, poor implementation, political interference, the absence of research in the formulation and conceptualization of programmes, and a top down approach in programme formulation and implementation.

7.3.8 Efforts that have been taken to overcome implementation challenges of youth

programmes

The researcher probed the participants in trying to establish efforts that have been taken to overcome the challenges facing the successful implementation of youth programmes. Most of the participants (from key informants and programmes officers) shared a consensus that efforts have been made by the government though the implementation challenges remain unabated. One participant corroborated this by stating that:

“We have organized capacity building workshops for Youth Development Fund beneficiaries and we have also engaged other relevant stakeholders to assist in the monitoring of youth projects”.

On the same note, one participant also stated that:

“The ministry management is trying by all means to do everything possible in order to make all the youth programmes to be successful in meeting their intended objectives, For instance we plan for joint monitoring with other government departments though we have limited resources at our disposal”.

One other important factor that came out from the findings is that, most of the youth beneficiaries do not communicate with the officers when they are facing challenges. Furthermore, they neither submit monthly reports to the office, nor do they repay the loan component as per the terms and conditions of the Memorandum of Agreement. As a result, they make the work of the officers even more difficult on the basis that the officer would not be able to keep track of their projects. Hence, based on the foregoing, many youth projects end up collapsing.

7.3.9 What can be done to address high youth unemployment in Botswana?

This was one of imperative questions on the grounds that one of the aims of this study was to establish how the country can stave off youth unemployment which is threatening the peace and tranquillity that Botswana is known of enjoying in the African continent. Participants came out with many responses in terms of suggestions that can help ameliorate youth unemployment in Botswana.

Key informants' participants

The first participant reported that:

“Creation of international opportunities for employment and business operation; review many youth programmes to make them effective for instance, the Youth Development Fund. There is a serious need to overhaul this programme. Moreover, the government must reserve certain industries for the youth, and the Competition Authority has to look into monopoly of certain business operations, for example, the choppies store owing poultry farms”

The second participant said:

“Botswana needs to set up labour intensive industries that can absorb a significant number of unemployed youth. The government should give the role of employment creation to the private sector and only assume the role of facilitating private sector to set up projects that can create employment.”

On the same note, another participant also stated that:

“In my view, I think the government should continue with the existing youth programmes and invest more on training before the youth can benefit from the programmes, even after funding there should be further close monitoring and mentorship.”

One participant also had this to say:

“Improve the education system so that it can suit the market (international market). Introduce entrepreneurship at grassroots level. The government should build or develop manufacturing factories and hire young people. Increase resources so that entrepreneurs are developed holistically because you cannot give random individual funds and expect a business to grow. That individual needs serious mentors so that they develop into full entrepreneurs”

Programmes officers’ participants

The first participant reported that:

“If funds permit, attaches in different departments should be absorbed by the government at the end of internship period. There should be minimal hiring of foreigners for the skills that are available in the country”.

On the same note, one participant also stated that:

“The government should have factories in various places according to their strength and/or competencies. For instance, some areas are good in horticulture, while others are good in animal rearing. There should be an incentive to motivate companies to hire the youth by giving them incentives like lower tax, etc. Build operational spaces or incubation spaces for the youth. Thus to say more affirmative action is needed in order to address youth unemployment in Botswana”.

One participant said:

“Unfortunately, I have no idea because the government is saying that there are no positions in the public service. As long as the status quo remains this way, it will be difficult for the government to address high youth unemployment rate in Botswana”.

On the same note, the other participant also stated that:

“The youth should be mobilized appropriately to be able to understand their needs and address them with the right intervention programmes for youth unemployment. In addition, more tangible long term programmes need to be introduced”

Lastly, one of the participants said:

“Older citizens working in the public service should retire at the age of 50 in order to make way for the youth, and there should be agricultural intervention programmes targeting them. For instance, horticulture, livestock rearing and many more”

It should be emphasized that one of the most important intentions of this study was to establish how the government of Botswana can improve youth employment. Most of the study participants were of the view that entrepreneurship development is an area that needs to be developed if youth unemployment is to be addressed. The key informants also shared similar sentiments with the programmes officers that direct job creation is the way forward for tackling youth unemployment.

A lower number of participants reported youth programmes under their current format cannot offer solutions for addressing youth unemployment. From the findings participants shared so many suggestions that can be undertaken in order to address high youth unemployment rate in Botswana. Still on how the government can stave off unemployment in Botswana, one participant also had this to say:

“Instead of the MYSC funding individual projects, we should rather be focusing on youth cooperatives, improving mentorship programmes that would oversee these projects, as well as investing in training.”

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented the qualitative data of this doctoral dissertation. The qualitative data constituted of the programme officers and the senior management from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the study on understanding the dynamics of youth development and socio-economic empowerment as well as social policies and strategic responses towards solutions for improving youth employment in Southern Africa with special emphasis on Botswana. The results of this thesis are of paramount importance in the formulation of conclusions and recommendations to effectively address the high youth unemployment rate in Botswana. Moreover, the results are anticipated to have implications on policies, research and practical interventions on how the government of Botswana can address high unprecedented proportions of youth unemployment that are currently besieging the nation of Botswana. Based on the study results, after the demographic characteristics, the analysis and interpretation will be based on the themes outlined below.

8.2 Demographic Details

8.2.1 Gender of participants

The results have shown that a larger number of males have benefited from the Youth Development Fund as compared to their female counterparts. Based on this result one might conclude that males still dominate in business due to socio-economic factors. This result concurs with (Mpho & Molefhe, 2016) that females find it difficult to engage in businesses, which may be due to family pressure regarding childcare and other daily chores associated with women in an African context. This also brings in the concept of women marginalization which has

dominated the subject of women empowerment long for a time in both the African and international literature.

A similar conclusion was reached by Bushell (2008) that socio-cultural constraints are likely to negatively affect the participation of young woman in entrepreneurial ventures. Overall, it can be concluded that, it is particularly challenging to become an entrepreneur in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa, where women are traditionally regarded as caretakers of the family and tend to be the most impoverished in terms of education and financial capital. Some of them had been forced to start their own ventures owing to family financial support, while some began by chance and many of them began because of “pull” factors.

Apart from the entrepreneurship constraints mentioned above, these results could be related to Gwija (2014), which revealed that personal difficulties, gender discrimination, prevailing socio-cultural attitudes and family responsibilities have been identified as key obstacles for women in developing countries to start-up their own ventures. In addition, although women’s education and training have been given priority over the past decade or more in Botswana, women’s literacy remains far below that of men, and this lack of literacy restricts women’s access to opportunities. Moreover, a lot of young women in Botswana nowadays become mothers early in their life, hence this restricts them the opportunity of venturing into running successful enterprises.

8.2.2. Age of youth participants

The study shows that a large percentage of the youth participants who took part in the study were between the ages of 26 and 35 years old (constituting 70%). Therefore, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that this may be due to increased family responsibilities on the grounds that as the youth grow older, they become more innovative and creative. Hence, that propels them to start their own enterprises in order to be able to care for their families' welfare. Also, this is in agreement with Motlaleng & Narayana (2014) that youth tend to take their lives seriously as they age into adulthood.

The percentage of youth participants between the age of 21 and 25 years was less as compared to other age groups. This may be due to the fact that young people in these age groups are still studying in university and colleges. However, being young cannot hold them back from pursuing entrepreneurial ventures, which underlines the need for aggressive measures in promoting entrepreneurship as early as in high school. An admirable example is that, the University of Botswana Business Clinic has been initiating different programs to help university students explore alternative ideas for addressing Botswana's existing problems, emphasize the value of entrepreneurship, and help aspiring entrepreneurs to open their own businesses. In that way, students gain practical entrepreneurship skills through participation in mock business competitions, nullifying the need to drop out of university to pursue entrepreneurship.

8.2.3 Educational attainment of youth participants

The findings have shown that most of the youth participants possess a Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education (known as BGCSE) in the context of Botswana. However, it is also worth indicating that another significant minority that followed was participants with Diploma certificate while insignificant minority held bachelor's degree qualifications. As a result of the foregoing, it can be deduced that unemployment does not only affect young people without degree qualifications, as those with educational attainment are affected hence precipitating them to apply for youth programmes that are aiming at addressing unemployment among the youth (Diraditsile & Ontetse 2017).

Furthermore, based on the foregoing, the results lead to a similar conclusion with the literature on youth unemployment and employment in Botswana. For instance, Gaetsewe (2019) stated that most challenging unemployment problems are posed by the unemployment of youth with primary and secondary education. Researchers have argued that unemployment tends to differ with educational attainment levels of the youth. This is in line with the findings of this present study as most unemployed respondents have BGCSE followed by diploma, and high school qualifications.

However, results of the test statistics seem to have contrasted all expectations, the findings have buttresses those of Broussard & Tekleselassie (2012) showing a positive relationship between educational attainment and unemployment, which they explain on the basis of the 'educated unemployment problem' reflecting the 'mismatch between the education and training skills available and the requirements of the labour market.

While it is indeed logical to acknowledge Pheko & Molefhe (2016) viewpoint that higher educational attainment is the foundation for gainful employment for both women and men, systemic problems and peculiarities of places may have eroded the credibility of this claim. All things considered, basic secondary education is the basis for acquiring entrepreneurship skill hence, it is believed that many youths will most likely be involved in self-employment activities in rural areas (Sechele, 2015).

8.3 Motivation for applying for the Youth Development Fund Programme

The findings have demonstrated that reasons for applying for the Youth Development Fund are many and varied. The study has reported that most of the youth participants applied for funding under the Youth Development Fund because of entrepreneurial aspirations and due to unemployment. This might imply that the youth in Botswana do still believe that entrepreneurship development can still create employment for the beneficiaries and other young people in the country. A total of 46% of the participants indicated that their venturing into businesses was because of their drive and passion for entrepreneurial development. This concurs with Smilor (1997) that passion has long been recognized as a central component of entrepreneurial motivation and success. Passion is the underlying force that fuels entrepreneurs to engage in activities that interest them deeply as it fills them with energy and enables them to perform at their peak (Wincent et al. 2005).

Some youth entrepreneurs in this study were attracted by the intention to create the jobs for inhabitants and to prevent the communities from degenerating any further. Many young people

did this to give back to their communities, while some others were motivated by the improvement of their livelihoods. Moreover, some of the young people had business exposure early in their life in their family businesses which might have driven them to engage in entrepreneurial undertakings. Noticeably, the findings are in agreement with Baumol (2007) that entrepreneurship has long been considered a crucial mechanism of economic development and as the single most important player in the modern economy.

Having perused the literature, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that, numerous benefits are associated in the society through entrepreneurship. Starting their own enterprise, being self-employed, and employing others are the substantial reasons of fostering entrepreneurship among the youth, as it drives innovation, solves unemployment by creating new jobs, and satisfies new consumer demands. Nonetheless, it is worth to note that, there are critics regarding youth entrepreneurship development and job creation in Botswana. Diraditsile & Maphula (2018) noted that, youth entrepreneurship development under its current format in Botswana is still far from addressing youth unemployment, seeing it as idealism as compared to a reality.

From the findings it can be argued that to a little extent the Youth Development Fund has led to establishment of new development activities. This can be related to the fact that most of the youth participants wanted to develop existing businesses. However, based on anecdotal evidence gleaned from governmental reports and/or observation, a few managed to initiate completely new businesses or diversify although most did so within the same nature of activities. It can be concluded that, based on the overall findings regarding youth enterprises financed by the government, the projects have contributed to the involvement of youth in development activities

and employment creation to a very little extent. This finding is in agreement with Diraditsile & Maphula (2018) that Botswana's entrepreneurship has a long way to go before youth enterprise can effectively drive change in the economy of the country.

However, it is also worth to note that, many scholars have written widely on entrepreneurship and its potency to generate employment, thus underscoring the importance, significance and relevance of this subsector in the development of any given economy. The experiences of developed economies in relation to the roles played by entrepreneurship buttresses the fact that the importance of entrepreneurship cannot be overemphasized especially among developing countries such as Botswana. In order to highlight its significance in relation to the growth and development of a given economy, entrepreneurship has been variously referred to as a source of employment generation (Awogbenle & Iwumadi, 2010). However, the findings of this study paint a different picture that entrepreneurship is not able to create employment as expected.

8.3.1 Programme awareness

Regarding programme awareness, the researcher investigated the sources from which participants obtained information about youth intervention programmes. The findings have shown that most of the youth beneficiaries reported that family and friends are their main source of information with factors such as social media, newspapers and television/radio broadcasts being the least. Based on the findings, this might show that the standard of living in the targeted areas of the study such as Tlokweng, Ramotswa and Mogoditshane are low, contributing to the low purchasing power of such services as the internet (for social media access) as well as newspapers and television/radio sets.

8.3.2 Insufficiency of the fund

Most of the youth beneficiaries pointed out the insufficiency of the funds that they received in pursuit of their various business operations. A similar conclusion was reached by Williams (2012) on the study titled 'Contextualizing Entrepreneurship: a case of Botswana Young Farmers Fund'. It came out that a majority of the programme beneficiaries reported that the funds obtained were not enough to establish a stable and sustainable business.

Taking into consideration the current study findings and findings from other scholars who have conducted studies on entrepreneurship development in Botswana, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that this could be due to many factors. For instance, some evolve around the high forecasted operational and production costs of their businesses, despite their length of operation. On this note, whether one's business has been operating for less than a year or more than 5 years, the funds given may not have been enough to cover all the forecasted or incurred operational costs such as rent and transport, as well as production costs such as labour and materials needed for production.

8.3.3 Repayment of the loan component

The researcher saw it inevitable to dig out the reasons behind the most participants' failure to repay the loan in the study. The underlying assumption here is that smooth repayment of YDF loans by beneficiaries could suggest that their economic activities are performing well. On the other hand, non-repayment could be attributed to underperformance of businesses when other factors are held constant. This observation may suggest that, repayment of the Youth Development Fund loan is questionable, which might indicate a poor performance of beneficiaries' development activities.

Furthermore, the Programmes Officers indicated that, low repayment rates of the Youth Development Fund loans are among the factors undermining the growth of the fund, hence failure to serve a larger population of the youth elsewhere in Botswana. Considerably, the Youth Development Fund it should be a revolving fund, meaning that failure to repay the loan component by beneficiary's results in a situation where the government fund is going down the drain.

Each year, the Government of Botswana under the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development spends approximately BWP1.2 million on entrepreneurship and small to medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs). The funds are allocated on constituency bases and since there are 57 constituencies in the country, each is given BWP2 million for purposes of financing SMMEs to young people between the ages of 18 and 35 years. However, the government has often been criticized for spending a large amount of money on unsustainable youth programmes with little impact on job creation. As a result, based on the foregoing, there is a serious need for key reforms to be undertaken regarding the programmes so that they can

benefit youth beneficiaries effectively, and at the same time, the government attains value for its investment.

Based on the study findings, a similar conclusion was reached by Kigoda (2009), whose study in Kenya on former President Kibaki presidential soft loans repayment, revealed that loans provided by the government are still treated as gifts not to be repaid. The study reported that some of the beneficiaries who had not repaid the loan argued that the loan was a gift from their President. Therefore, this calls for the need to thoroughly sensitize the community on youth development policies and the Youth Development Fund programme in order to build awareness and capacity to take over their responsibilities in facilitating the programme. Besides, the influence of the politicians in the process of loan acquisition also tends to magnify the wrong conception about soft loans by the government, compromising the implementation of the youth development interventions.

8.3.4 Existence of the youth businesses

A lion's share of responses is attributed to the validation that the beneficiaries' businesses still exist, while a insignificant minority validates otherwise. Although this is an appealing fact, one must still question the viability of these said existing businesses, as a mere conclusion that most youth businesses still exist cannot only be used as a measure that the fund is relevant or not. In this case, it may be deduced from the findings that the reason why most of the youth beneficiaries validated the existence of their businesses could be due to the contractual terms and conditions of the Youth Development Fund. For instance, the contract stipulates that these

businesses are bound to exist for the next 5 years, of which during this time period, the business is 50% owned by the government and 50% by the beneficiary.

After the 5-year period elapses, and the beneficiary has returned 50% of the loan, the business is entirely theirs. Upon this statement, it is probably plausible to believe that in response to whether their businesses exist or not, most of the beneficiaries felt obliged to agree that their businesses are still in existence even though it could be possible that there is little or no such evidence on the ground. As for those who responded that their businesses do not exist, there is a possibility that they might have lost all hope to revive those businesses in the face of one challenge or the other.

The result under this section ties well with previous studies wherein Sitoula (2015) notes that entrepreneurship is risky because a few of the so-called entrepreneurs know what they are doing. They lack the methodology and violate the elementary and well-known rules. Notably, it is worth to indicate that there is limited literature regarding what has been done concerning entrepreneurial education for the youth to enable them to make optimal use of the Youth Development Fund.

8.4 Business training sufficiency

There is not much disparity between the major responses given and in accordance to the findings, very few have benefited from business training, which was not done prior to receiving a loan but much later, possibly meaning that it was not effective for youth empowerment. Therefore, the overall the result of this analysis shows that the ministry provides training for the beneficiaries.

However, it is worth to note that the issue of efficiency was difficult to determine on the grounds that the researcher did not have measurements in place to ascertain what is meant by efficiency. Nonetheless, from the literature in Botswana, it has been argued that beneficiaries can be financed without any training and be trained after some time when they have already started their business operations.

Diraditsile, Hamaluba & Mokoka (2019) notes that the successful implementation of government-led youth policies and programmes is also undermined by failure of the state to provide pre-finance training and mentoring on business management to programme beneficiaries. For instance, regarding the Development Fund, training is provided after approval of the beneficiaries' application and subsequent funding. It is strategic that the youth in Botswana be equipped with entrepreneurial knowledge and skills through entrepreneurship training, pre-funding capacity building through exchange programmes to provide aspiring semi-urban youth entrepreneurs with support and business exposure.

Mulwa (2008) asserts that entrepreneurship training builds on people's capacity. Training for capacity building enables the target group to acquire knowledge and skills needed to operate effectively and efficiently, as well as acquire values and attitudes to enable them to appreciate their inherent untapped potential and reinforce their self-confidence and sense of autonomy as opposed to a dependency on programme officers in running their enterprises.

Isaacs & Friedrich (2007) define entrepreneurship education as the purposeful intervention that is made by an educator in the life of the learner through entrepreneurial qualities and skills teaching,

which will enable the learner to survive the dynamics of the business world. In addition, entrepreneurship education is designed to specifically support graduates, operating and aspirant entrepreneurs in the setting up and/or operation of their own entrepreneurial ventures rather than to seek paid employment from someone else or institutions (either public/private). Thus, the importance of promoting entrepreneurship and training to entrepreneurs through centres and institutions, should not be taken lightly (Ndedi, 2009).

Research suggests that university graduates and school leavers should be equipped with proper entrepreneurial skills, which will help them to create more jobs, as opposed to seeking paid employment. To a great extent, since 1990, in Botswana, education has gained popularity. However, entrepreneurship education has not gained momentum yet in the academic sector due to lack of the clear policies and strategies of Ministry of Education, Skills and Development. Nevertheless, private sectors and Non-governmental organizations have done much to promote entrepreneurship education in the country. For instance, there is a Youth Entrepreneurial Development Programme that was launched by Kgalagadi Brewers (Pty) Ltd (KBL) in 2004, aimed at youth who either want to start businesses or expand their existing ones. The programme is open to Botswana youth aged between 18 and 35 years.

8.4.1 Business knowledge and skills in running enterprises

It is an interesting fact that most of the participants indicated that they had relevant business knowledge, experience and skills before obtaining funding from the government. However, it appears that the relevant knowledge and skills in running enterprises does not translate into running a successful business, the reason being that, the study has reported high collapsed rates of projects. Worse still, beneficiaries are not able to repay the loan component because projects that are still in operation are not able to sustain themselves.

The researcher has since come to realize that rather than generalizing business knowledge and skills in running enterprises, perhaps this question should have been more specific and precise. For instance, the study should have categorized business skills in terms of the following:

- Financial management skills
- Customer management skills
- Conflict management skills
- Marketing research skills
- Teamwork skills
- Enterprise development skills
- Intellectual property right skills
- Labour laws awareness

Based on the foregoing skills, it is worth to highlight that in Botswana there has been a cause for concern that the school curriculum has not fully incorporated entrepreneurship development as a subject, resulting in graduates willing to sell their labour as opposed to venturing into businesses

and creating employment opportunities. According to Morima (2012) young people who have a strong entrepreneurial urge tend to access short courses offered by the Local Enterprise Authority (LEA) and other small business development organisations. Noticeably, it can be argued that a high number of business closures are recorded, not as a result of the lack of technical skills to engage in production, but rather the lack of basic knowledge on requisite business systems and ethics.

The foregoing has a huge impact on youth entrepreneurial performance. The study findings also reveal a wide disparity between males and females in business ownership, with males dominating in this regard. These results are also in line with other studies such as Chimucheka, (2009) that show that not only do women have lower participation rates than men, but they also generally choose to develop enterprises in different industries than men.

8.5 Employment opportunities under the programme

Addressing youth unemployment in Botswana was among the objectives of the Youth Development Fund programme, as it was expected that it could have good implications on youth development if it has helped its beneficiaries to create employment opportunities for others thereby reducing youth unemployment in Botswana. Beneficiaries therefore were asked to state whether they have managed to create job opportunities for other youth after receiving funding from the programme.

In order to establish further evidently on the performance of the Youth Development Fund, the researcher went far to find out the estimated number of new employment opportunities created as a result of the programme. Considerably, using enumerator administered questionnaires the researcher included a question to collect information on mean number of other youths who have benefited from development activities of beneficiaries by securing jobs. This could be an indication that majority of youth owned businesses that are small in size and capital.

Through observation, the researcher also identified that some other young people were employed in various Youth Development Fund beneficiaries' businesses such as restaurants, welding, carpentry, shops and many more. However, it is worth to indicate that a significant minority has not created employment to other young people in the country. Perhaps, that is the reason the country is still experiencing high unprecedented proportions of youth unemployment even though there are various interventions meant to address the problem. Notably, when some of the young people who are employed in these projects were asked on whether they are satisfied with the wages they were being, paid, most reported that the wages were not enough while some reported delays in wage payments.

However, it is worth to note that, a majority of those currently employed indicated that their livelihood situation has improved to some extent compared to the period back when they had nothing to do. The poor wages and salaries paid to employees of the Youth Development Fund beneficiaries development reflects the reality of underperformance of development activities emanating from challenges associated with inadequate capital and shallow business skills provided through the programme. Therefore, a number of employment opportunities created by

the Youth Development Fund, do not matter but the quality of such employments in terms economic returns do. Such employments can still imply underemployment of youths and/or low employment creation.

8.5.1 Benefits attained as a result of the YDF Programme

It should be highlighted that the questionnaire for the youth beneficiaries also included a few vignettes accompanied by a series of open-ended questions that established to find out the extent to which the programme has impacted on the livelihood of its beneficiaries. Evidently, five main variables were used as criteria to assess livelihood improvement and these included, inter alia; the acquisition of economic assets, meeting basic needs, health care access, meeting educational needs and improved livelihood. Generally, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that these findings justify that the Youth Development Fund has insignificant implications on the livelihoods of its beneficiaries on the grounds that fewer beneficiaries have managed to acquire economic assets.

Strikingly, it is noteworthy to highlight there are also critics of youth intervention programmes in Botswana who have indicated that the government seems to be getting little value in terms of returns that have been invested in youth development and empowerment initiatives. However, this research acknowledges the positive contribution made by youth development intervention programmes in tackling challenges faced by the youth in Botswana. Conspicuously, Diraditsile (2017) notes that, regarding the challenges of the youth intervention programmes in Botswana, it

can be concluded that successes are outweighed by challenges owing to the fact that the needs of the youth remain largely unaddressed.

Moreover, there is very little (and in some cases no) noticeable change or qualitative improvement in the quality of life of the intended beneficiaries. Therefore, Nthomang & Diraditsile (2016) argue that, an intervention programme that does not improve the socio-economic conditions of the beneficiaries is a failure, and as such, it should be reviewed with a view to improvement or discontinuation.

Unfortunately, this has not been the case with the current youth intervention programmes in Botswana and elsewhere in Southern Africa, such as Zimbabwe, Zambia and eSwatini, but just to mention a few countries (Ibid, 2017). The policies and programmes are either defective in their formulation and conceptualization or are not truly and religiously implemented. It is increasingly felt that too many young people, willingly or unwillingly, are becoming dependent on government support.

8.6 Market availability and accessibility

Regarding market availability and accessibility, the findings show that a majority of the youth participants reported being able to access the market for their enterprises. Moreover, many of the youth indicated that the market is unstable, and the minority reported that there is no market for their enterprises to thrive. The result on market availability appears not to be supported by the

literature in Botswana on the grounds that many scholars have indicated that enterprises fail to thrive due to lack of market in the country.

According to the 2011 Housing and Population Census, the population of Botswana is approximately 2.2 million. This therefore makes Botswana one of the smallest countries in Southern Africa in terms of population. Modisane (2017) argues that, over 90% of businesses in Botswana rely on the government for market. Furthermore, Assan (2012) also indicates that, due to lack of a sustainable market, beneficiaries are sometimes employed by external companies, while they are still registered and operating as entrepreneurs. This then tends to affect the productivity and cost effectiveness of the enterprises and negatively impacts the sustainability and viability of the various youth enterprises.

Noticeably, Pansiri & Temtime (2010) posit that, apart from the numerous contributing factors of business failures in the country, carrying capacity is a major challenge for businesses in Botswana, given the country's population size. Programmes for regional and international markets have not increased Botswana's footprint in the international market either. Though the above studies were not precisely undertaken on to youth businesses, it can be concluded that young businesses face the same challenges as businesses operated by well-established enterprises run by older citizens in the country.

Notably, having perused the Affirmative Action in favour of the youth by the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development, the government can be applauded for the efforts it has made to facilitate smooth operations of the youth enterprises. In this regard, the

government has made special considerations for the youth who are highly vulnerable to unemployment and poverty. An assessment of the services offered by the government has shown that there is lucrative potential for improved access to and uptake of services by the youth if certain identified conditions are waived or adjusted.

These include levies, cost recovery charges and licensing conditions. The ministry identified some factors as inhibiting youth access to services, for consideration by the Cabinet, hence exemptions extended to the youth. Let's consider some of the affirmative action in favour of the youth by the government below;

8.6.1 Lease fees – Land Boards

It has been agreed that youth businesses should be granted a five (5) year grace period without paying lease fees. Furthermore, they will not pay lease fees for fields, farms, commercial plots, but just to mention a few. For the first 5 years following the allocation of such land, and land authorities will grant such businesses a waiver for the first 5 years (Presidential Directive CAB 14 (B)/2015).

8.6.2 Land for youth projects

Youth who bid and win tenders for commercial plots will be allowed to pay-off the price in instalments as agreed with the appropriate authority instead of a once-off lump sum, thus 2-3 instalments instead of a once-off sum payment. Furthermore, the MYSC in collaboration with

Ministry of Lands and Housing will identify and set aside Land Banks across the country for allocation to the youth on a short-term lease/sub-lease basis.

8.6.3 Tender documents

Youth companies should acquire tender documents at a charge of 50% of the selling price to accord them the opportunity to bid for a wide spectrum of products and services (Presidential Directive CAB 14(B)/2015).

8.6.4 PPADB

PPADB registration charges applicable to works category should be revised to allow re-registering or upgrading for 50% of the set charge. Moreover, the PPADB registration for youth companies, including both standard and express registration, should be charged at 50% of the set charge and done within 14 days (Presidential Directive CAB 14(B)/2015).

8.7 Do youth programmes meet expectations of the beneficiaries?

The researcher was interested in whether the programme is meeting the expectations of the beneficiaries. Hence, there was a question on measuring the level of performance of the Youth Development Fund programme on the basis that, good performance could also be indicated by the level of customer/client satisfaction.

As a result, the beneficiaries of the Youth Development Fund were therefore asked to state and/or rank the extent to which the programme has met their expectations. The findings suggest that the Youth Development Fund has not satisfied majority of the beneficiaries. In other words, the beneficiaries are not satisfied with the programme services and hence they stated that the programme needs some improvement and modification in order to efficiently meet its intended objectives.

Noticeably, the results showed that, there was an overwhelming disagreement regarding whether the government is supportive to youth entrepreneurship in Botswana. It is worth to note that, currently, there is no mechanism for the collection, analysis and dissemination of information on micro enterprises in Botswana. There is no over-arching policy framework that describes the government's intentions for the development of youth in many ways, inter alia; youth entrepreneurship, youth development and youth empowerment. The national development plans and policies do not accord high priority for the development of youth entrepreneurship. Moreover, policies and programmes have been established without a comprehensive information base on Botswana's youth labour market.

It is the contention of this dissertation that there is no doubt that, there are initiatives that have been introduced to assist the youth through government programmes in many government ministries and departments, but it might be concluded that many of the initiatives and/or programmes are a minuscule drop in the ocean. Besides, many of such initiatives are not monitored and evaluated, which affects the overall prospects of the sustainability of the programmes.

Accordingly, most development planners and policy makers do not integrate the youth in these development processes, and they presume their duty is done by making a separate policy statement on the youth. As a result, these policy statements are however, not followed with appropriate programmes and strategies. Therefore, there must be a visible demonstration of the appropriate awareness vision and political will to pursue new and more sustainable youth development strategies in Botswana and elsewhere in the African continent. Notably, action must replace communiqués, rhetoric and other grand statements of intent. Transformational youth development and empowerment must go beyond political spin.

8.8 Is the youth development fund under its current form still relevant?

To capture views on the above subject matter, the researcher asked the youth participants as well as the key informants to indicate whether the programme is still important for youth development and empowerment in Botswana. A majority of both the youth participants and the key informants have revealed that the programme is still relevant and important initiative to promote youth development, youth empowerment and can create jobs for other youth in the country. As a result, several participants reported that its existence should be continued. These findings are also in agreement with Diraditsile (2017: 80) that, youth intervention programmes are relevant but what is questionable is whether the programmes are producing positive results by having a significant impact on the lives of the young people in Botswana.

Another important finding was the fact that the Youth Development Fund programme is still potentially important due to the imperative role it plays to empower the youth economically and promoting their participation in the various development activities. Hence, a significant majority of the participants also noted that it should not be terminated but rather, it should be improved and modified in order to efficiently attain its intended objectives. Nonetheless, although the youth participants suggested that the government must increase the ceiling amount of the fund, they did not suggest more ways to help the government to increase the fund apart from improving loan repayment by enhancing prosecution of Youth Development Fund loan defaulters.

It is worth to highlight that; proper targeting of the Youth Development Fund beneficiaries was another suggestion by the participants which responded to the challenge of insufficient funds that deny access among the youth. For instance, the researcher noted that more of the Youth Development Fund beneficiaries in the study did not fall in the youth category because at the time this research was conducted some participants aged above 40 years.

During the data collection in the interviews, it came out that there should be timely disbursement of the funds in order to address unnecessary delays which negatively affect beneficiaries' development activities. Therefore, the practice of good governance and reduction of bureaucracy in the ministry will be effective in responding to the challenge. As of now, a series of government officials are involved in the fund's adjudication process and funds disbursement procedure, and an approval of the project under the programme can take more than 6 months.

Moreover, fund disbursement after approval of the projects also takes time which inconveniences the beneficiaries in the long run.

Thus, it is a strong conviction of this dissertation that in order to improve the performance of the programme beneficiaries, development activities call for the creation of an enabling environment for small and medium entrepreneurs such as improving the access to markets by improving transport and communications. Roads in most parts of the Kweneng District were observed to be not useful throughout the year while some villages are disconnected with telecommunication networks. Furthermore, power supply and lack of modern technology were reported by some of the youth participants to affect the processing of their agricultural commodities, and some businesses that provide services and are manufacturing centered.

Enhancing the technical support of the programme beneficiaries through regular field visits could eventually be attained if the programme funding can be improved on the basis that community development and the technical staff involved in this aspect need to be facilitated with transport facilities. Besides, field supervision of the programme beneficiaries could also be enhanced when such officers are employed at village level, such as the Village Development Committees.

Furthermore, the programme beneficiaries were advised to diversify their development activities and/or enterprises in order to respond to market fluctuations. This was proposed owing to the fact that, the demand and supply of commodities changes depending on seasonality or an influx of competitors in the industry, hence by sticking to a fixed type of some commodities may affect business progress. Entrepreneurs therefore need to be flexible in trying various kinds of

businesses for market and progress assurance, especially in this era of a free market economy. That youth intervention programmes are relevant is not in dispute, rather what is questionable is whether these programmes are producing positive results having a significant impact on the lives of young people in Botswana (Diraditsile, 2017: 79).

8.9 Monitoring and evaluation of youth programmes

This was one of the imperative questions from the study. Based on the findings, it came out that monitoring of youth intervention programmes is done in a sporadic manner, and something needs to be done to change the status quo. Monitoring is vital in the sense that, it is a continuous process of collecting information at regular intervals about ongoing projects or programmes concerning the nature and level of their performance (Nyonje, et al 2012). Moreover, monitoring helps in tracking the progress of a project in relation to the plan earlier determined to ensure that the project is moving towards the right direction. Based on the foregoing, therefore monitoring should be carried out regularly to ensure proper adherence to the objectives and goals of an organization. This can be done quarterly, bi-annually or annually.

Mulwa (2008) describes monitoring as a process of collecting and managing project data that provides feedback as it pertains to the progress of a project. Furthermore, Mulwa adds that the process involves measuring, assessing, recording and analyzing the project information on a continuous basis and communicating the same to those concerned. Along the same lines, Mburu (2008) established that, systematic monitoring and evaluation of youth businesses in Tanzania was weak and thus need to be strengthened. This indicates the importance of monitoring and

evaluation on youth empowerment. Project evaluation is a process that involves systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of project related data that can be used to understand how the project is functioning in relation to its objectives (Nyonje et al, 2012). Based on the foregoing, this current research reiterates that youth businesses in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa require effective monitoring and evaluation to help them to maintain focus.

Notably, Nthomang et al (2015) assert that many government policies in Botswana suffer from the absence of in-built monitoring and evaluation. This means that programme implementers are not able to track progress against set objectives, indicators, and targets. As a result, it is difficult to assess the success or failure rate of youth policies and intervention programmes. For instance, since inception the Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES) and the Youth Development Fund (YDF) have been implemented with no monitoring or evaluation framework in place. It is therefore difficult to determine the extent to which these programmes have delivered or failed to deliver on set objectives. The same could be said about other programmes such as the Botswana National Service Programme (BNSP). Interestingly, the Botswana National Internship Programme (BNIP) was evaluated a few years ago but the results were never made public. The critical question is; has the programme succeeded in doing what it was set out to do?

It should be emphasized that, critics believe that BNIP failed and only succeeded in providing temporary exploitative employment for very few young people. Furthermore, most young people enrolled in BNIP and BNSP are not gaining enough professional training and skills due to weak mentoring and job shadowing arrangements. In all the above programmes, the emphasis is on getting young people off the streets and provide funding to beneficiaries. Little attention is paid

to the impact of the programmes on the intended beneficiaries; in particular, sustainable employment creation and improvement of youth livelihoods.

The tendency of government officials has been to focus on the number of projects funded, the amount disbursed, and the number of young people that have been assisted, but not on whether such interventions have made any positive impact and improved the quality of life of the youth. Keetile (2014) underscored the importance of monitoring and evaluation in youth programmes, asserting that policies and programmes should be monitored to assess if progress has been made in relation to set objectives.

Noticeably, there is a substantial body of evidence that shows that monitoring and evaluation need to be designed as an intertwined participatory exercise where all stakeholders are involved. Shirley & Xu (2014) notes that, there is need to affirm participation as a development process in which two parts, adult and youth, work together to achieve one common goal. This could be made possible through mentorship programs. Although commonly neglected, the role of the mentor, typically someone within the business circle who can offer their wisdom, experience, and wider insight, or just give time and an ear to the entrepreneur such as a seasoned business lender at key business or personal inflection points (Naqvi, 2011). Therefore, it is the argument of this research that youth entrepreneurs need mentorship to reassure them even when things do not seem to be going well.

Furthermore, monitoring and evaluation ensures that project resources and inputs are put into their intended use to ensure that the project addresses what it initially intended to do. It also acts

as a gauge to see sure that the project renders its services to the targeted population. Based on the study findings, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that due to lack of failure of monitoring and evaluation, many youth projects collapse as soon as they begin while some do not even pick up because the youth use the funds for their personal benefits. This occurs due to the lack of proper and comprehensive group screening to ensure seriousness in goal and objectives.

According to Nyonje, et al (2012) project monitoring and evaluation is important to different people for various reasons. Some of the reasons they provide include but are not limited to the following: First, monitoring and evaluation is important to project managers and their stakeholders (including donors/government) owing to the fact that they need to know the extent to which their projects are meeting the set objectives and attaining the desired effects.

In the case of the youth projects, it is of great importance to know whether they are creating employment and empowering the youth. Secondly, monitoring and evaluation promotes greater transparency and accountability in terms of the use of project resources, which is particularly required by funders and/or development partners. Thirdly, information developed through the monitoring and evaluation process is vital for improving decision-making. Lastly, monitoring and evaluation if is done well can strengthen project design, enrich quality of project interventions and enhance learning.

8.10 Magnitude of youth unemployment

It is evident from the present study findings that youth unemployment is an issue of major concern in Botswana. This is shown by almost all youth and key informants' participants as they have pointed out that youth unemployment is a serious challenge. This finding is consistent with scholars who have written extensively about youth unemployment as an issue in Botswana Nthomang, et al (2016) have noted that youth unemployment has reached unprecedented proportions and as such, it threatens the social, economic and political situation of the country.

8.11 Contributing factors to youth unemployment

Gordhan (2012) has argued that many economies do not create enough jobs to match the supply from educational institutions. Findings of the present study confirm researcher's assertion, as a majority of both youth and key informants' participants identified limited job opportunities as the main contributing factor of youth unemployment in Botswana. Modiakgotla (2015) has pointed out that Botswana continues to post high GDP figures (economic growth) that do not translate into adequate jobs for a small population (approximately 2.2 million people).

Malema (2012) also asserts that, over the years, the government has failed to diversify the economy to non-mining sectors which are known to be labour intensive such as agriculture and manufacturing, which can absorb many young people into employment.

The study findings from the secondary data have shown that skills mismatch is another contributing factor to youth unemployment, followed by the lack of entrepreneurial culture and lack of practical skills. Consistent with the above finding, Nthomang et al (2016) notes that, in Botswana, youth unemployment has been attributed to lack of skills, low levels of education and skills mismatch, thus the mismatch between labour supply and demand. Along the same lines, its observed that, despite concerted efforts by the government of Botswana to create jobs, the country is faced with daunting challenges of limited skilled workers.

Notably, at present, Botswana depends on migrant workers to fill the skills gaps in many professions (Mogomotsi & Madigele, 2017). Therefore, it is not unreasonable to suggest that this might explain why some graduates are unemployed even though they have high qualifications. It might also be argued that the skills they have acquired at school may no longer be needed by employers in the job market.

On another note, the review of the literature in Botswana shows that of recent the youth have stated a lack of practical skills as an impediment to getting a job (Gaetsewe, 2019). This concurs with Sechele (2015) who observed that, employers prefer to hire youth with considerable work experience, who will not require any training that will cost them financially over those with little or no work experience at all. Moreover, ILO observations found credence in the Grand Thornton International Business Report of 2015 which found out that, the greatest challenges that Botswana faces concerning youth unemployment is a shortage of specific or technical skills (79%), lack of work experience (77%) and lack of required qualifications (71%).

Noticeably, combining these statistics and the present study findings, it can be said that shortage of skills to match the requirements of the labour market is still the major contributing factor of youth unemployment in Botswana and elsewhere in many countries in the African region.

8.12 Obstacles in finding a job

The study findings on the secondary data is in agreement with the notion by Gaetsewe (2019) that a large number of young people in Botswana believe that the main obstacle to finding a job is a lack of work experience followed by the lack or unavailability of jobs in the market.

This is buttressed by Isengard (2002) who asserts that, work experience is counted among the key individual risks which contribute to youth unemployment. The study further explained that an individual's level of work experience is one of the most important determinants of occupational success. As stated above a lack of working experience is considered as a cost to the employer as they will have to invest in training their workers (Motlaleng & Narayana, 2014).

8.13 The challenges of government youth programs

Firstly, present study findings have indicated a lack of monitoring and evaluation as the major challenge of government initiatives to stave off youth unemployment in Botswana. This finding is in accordance with Diraditsile (2017) that many youth intervention programmes in Botswana suffer from the absence of in-built monitoring and evaluation, where programme implementers are not able to track progress against set objectives, indicators and targets.

Research further indicates that due to lack of monitoring and evaluation, it is difficult to assess the success or failure of youth policies and intervention programmes. Along the same lines, Bothale (2011) posits that, this is not only a challenge to youth programmes rather most government poverty reduction programmes are not evaluated and monitored to perceive whether they are achieving their intended objectives of alleviating poverty.

Secondly, it is worth to highlight that, one of the present study findings is that a significant number of participants have identified poor implementation is a challenge to government programmes. Youth development scholars in Botswana have stated that government youth initiatives emphasize on getting young people out of the streets, through the provision of funding to youth beneficiaries. However, little attention is paid to the impact of such programmes on the intended beneficiaries, in particular, sustainable employment creation and the improvement of the youth livelihoods. Furthermore, the propensity of government officials has been to focus on the number of the projects funded, amount disbursed and the number of young people that have been assisted and not on whether such interventions have made any positive impact and improved quality of life of the youth.

Keetile (2014) underscored the importance of monitoring and evaluation in youth development programmes by asserting that policies and programmes should be monitored to assess if progress has been made in relation to set objectives.

8.14 The effectiveness of youth intervention programmes in addressing youth Unemployment

There seems to be a conundrum regarding the effectiveness of the youth intervention programmes in addressing youth unemployment in Botswana. The findings show that, most key informants neither agree nor disagree that youth intervention programmes are effective in addressing youth unemployment in Botswana. Nonetheless, a significant minority have stated that youth intervention programmes are not effective in addressing youth unemployment. Earlier findings of the International Council on Security and Development (ICOS) show that 40% of the youth was satisfied with implemented governmental initiatives while 20% were dissatisfied with them (ISCOS, 2010).

While many Botswana youth exhibited the sense of frustration and exclusion that government opportunities were not equally provided, largely ineffective or inappropriate, the findings of this present study indicate that government initiatives could not completely promote youth employment. Nevertheless, the respondents felt that the government could do much better by adequately involving or consulting the youth in the conceptualization, design, implementation and monitoring of government programmes meant for employment creation.

8.15 What can be done for the youth intervention programmes to produce results?

The study findings have revealed that in order for the government of Botswana to address youth unemployment, the main focus should be on investing in job creation sectors; followed by developing a dynamic and productive private sector which will be able to address youth unemployment head on by creating more jobs for the youth in the country. Therefore, it does not

seem unreasonable to suggest that the importance of youth employment is underscored by the fact that all the issues affecting youth rest fundamentally on their lack of assets or material means.

Their housing status rests on it; their health status depends on it; the concept they have of themselves and the state of the level of their independence, indeed their ability to exercise their rights as human beings depends on their access to assets (Ryan, 2005). Therefore, youth employment should be given priority attention in Botswana and elsewhere in the African continent.

With respect to the findings, it is important to consider the following areas for improvement;

- (i) Increased consultations, collaboration and partnerships
- (ii) Creation of institutional structures for effective implementation
- (iii) Provision of relevant entrepreneurial skills and knowledge, mentoring and job shadowing
- (iv) Promote work ethic, resilience and commitment to achieve results through monitoring and evaluation for effective programme implementation

Consistent with the above proposals, evidence gleaned from the both the study findings and the literature suggests that the design of the youth programmes should be such that implementation is possible. There are several mistakes that should be avoided during the design and implementation stages, including the following:

- i) Attempting to achieve too much too quickly. This can lead to sacrificing the ultimate goal of programmes, which is reducing youth unemployment
- ii) Not allowing time to plan properly and build the required institutional and management capacity for effective and efficient implementation.
- iii) Overloading the programme with too many objectives to a point where the programmes fail to achieve any of them; and
- iv) Programme imposition due to lack of consultations with relevant stakeholders

Best practice to be emulated, includes:

- i) Consistent political support
- ii) Resources and time allocated to planning the programme and developing the capacity to implement it.
- iii) Planning the programme to ensure that the pace of implementation is linked to the quality and outcomes of the programme. High priority must be given to investing in effective systems of monitoring and evaluation
- iv) Youth policies and programmes need urgent reforms (overhaul). In this regard, the government should stop running these programmes like social welfare programmes. Rather, they should be run like businesses with clear employment outputs and productivity results

In addition to the above, the “new and re-designed youth unemployment programmes should adopt the following features:

- An in-built monitoring and evaluation framework that provides information on youth unemployment

- A clear commitment to skills development. This is because the capacity of the programmes that contribute towards bringing solutions to the persistent youth unemployment will not bear fruits and therefore cannot be sustained without capacitating the youth with the right knowledge and skills for sustainable livelihoods and self-reliance.
- A clearly articulated plan for graduation and independence as well as paying back government loans to allow others to borrow from the revolving fund. This will ensure the sustainability of the fund.

From the foregoing, it is the argument of this dissertation that clearly the challenge to successful implementation of youth interventions programmes meant to address unemployment lies in changing their philosophical orientation, design, implementation methodologies and approaches. The new approach requires strengthening institutional structures and coordination mechanisms for the effective delivery of youth development projects.

It was also reported from the findings that perhaps people in the public service should retire early in order to give way for young people to get employment. This concurs with a proposition that was made by Sechele (2015) that probably the time has arrived to revisit the retirement age to make it earlier than it currently is. This will work in such a way that it allows for the sharing of the seemingly rare employment opportunities with the seniors making way for the youth.

According to the 'lump of labour fallacy' theoretical perspective, an old worker leaving the labour market makes room for a young worker who can perfectly substitute them in their previous positions (Eichhorst et al., 2014). It assumes perfect substitutability between young and

elderly workers; however, most economists argue that the theory is based on the erroneous belief of a fixed amount of work.

Nonetheless, this strategy worked perfectly in the 1980s and early 1990s in OECD countries where increasingly more generous early retirement schemes were in place and, arguably, attributed to the falling male employment rates for the older population (Kalwij, Kapteyn, & Vos, 2010). The state should not ignore the idea that an additional benefit of facilitating early retirement will create employment for the young.

Research shows that, it is unclear whether job sharing would be addressing the structural deficiencies of Botswana's job market. Furthermore, other pessimists argue that job sharing, or early retirement assumes that forcing elderly workers out of the labour force means that the labour market is a zero-sum game. However, the labour market is not necessarily a zero-sum game. Therefore, increasing the quantity of jobs should not be viewed as an end in itself but rather as a means to an end (Jousten et al., 2008). It can therefore be argued that, a policy intervention should be implemented to prohibit the systematic closing out of the youth outside the labour market through unreasonable requirements such as long periods of post-qualification experience.

Ryan (2005) share the same sentiments that in order to create employment for the youth, governments in developing countries should encourage private sector businesses to employ young people by providing incentives in the form of tax breaks, as it can be seen as a sort of youth employment or empowerment service, benefiting the government, business and the young

people. He further argues that, in some situations, this is seen as an apprenticeship programme through which participants can acquire or upgrade skills that would make them more workplace ready or even strengthen the basis for them to start their own business enterprises.

One another note, in connection with the findings, evidence abounds indicating that due to the desperation to reduce unemployment and its negative consequences, many countries have opted for the strategy of wage subsidies, by either subsidising the payrolls of employers who employ groups of people targeted by the subsidy or by giving tax rebates to such employers as a way of encouraging them to employ more people. Noticeably, wage or employment subsidies have been used in both developed and developing countries to raise employment levels. On this note, in a developing country context, where labour market failure is typically characterised by unemployment, a subsidy offered to the firm is more appropriate (Burns, Edwards, & Pauw, 2013).

In agreement with the above findings, Boikhutso & Molosiwa (2016) notes that, there is no doubt that education reforms and public policies are critical components in addressing youth unemployment in Botswana. As a result, it is yet to be seen if government initiatives and strategies such as the Human Resource Development Council (HRDC), the Botswana Qualification Authority (BQA) and the Botswana National Internship Programme are facilitating the on-the-job skills training that is needed by students to fully penetrate the labour market. The present study findings have demonstrated that there is a poor synergy between the supply of education and the labour market demands.

Too often, the link between the supply and demand for education is glossed over by policy makers, education practitioners and politicians. Therefore, this might suggest that it is important to re-examine the nature of the education curriculum, teaching and learning processes as well as reflect on ways of making schools and higher education institutions enhance the employability of the youth.

With reference to the findings, this research did not make specific and detailed policy choices for the government. It rather provided a menu of policy options for the government to consider for its employment creation drive. This paper also provided general lessons not only to the Botswana government, but also for other governments in the developing world faced with growing unemployment rates among young graduates. Based on the findings of this research and literature on unemployment in Botswana, many scholars have written extensively in terms of what the government can do in order to tackle youth unemployment.

The critical question is whether their findings reach the relevant people in policy making? As it is, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that, the scholarly information might not be reaching policy makers in the government enclaves. Therefore, it is the intention that the findings of this doctoral dissertation will be shared with many government ministries and departments in the form of presentations in workshops and other means that can reach policy makers in the government precincts, the private sector and the community in general.

8.16 Areas where action must be taken

The present study findings show that almost all study participants asserted that action has been taken in entrepreneurship development with regard to addressing youth unemployment. This finding is in accordance with Diraditsile, et al (2018), that the government of Botswana acknowledges the plight of the youth, and fully appreciates the opportunities entrepreneurship creates for employment generation, their contributions to economic and development as well as the constraints and difficulties in their operating environment. This explains the reason behind the government decision to establish various support institutions and relief measures especially structures to render assistance to minimize, if not eliminate, the constraints of entrepreneurship since the 1990s.

The support system/institutions established by the government range from specialized Banks designed to focus on the funding to Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) to agencies and departments all meant to give a flip to the fortunes of SMMEs. Diraditsile et. al., (2018) states that; there are many institutions and entities offering entrepreneurship opportunities comprising; Botswana Innovation Hub, Commercial Banks, and other government affiliated institutions.

Overall, it is worth pointing out that the youth unemployment crisis currently bedeviling the country cannot be solved overnight and easily. Therefore, it is the contention of this research that any solution should focus on the long term with a view to ensure sustainability. Any attempt to find half-baked quick fixes to the problem of youth unemployment will not yield any long-term

results and is a recipe for failure. Under the circumstances, it may not be unreasonable to conclude that in the current formant, youth development programmes cannot be an answer to youth unemployment in Botswana.

8.17 Conclusion

This chapter discussed both the qualitative and quantitative results of the study. It delved into the meaning, importance and relevance of the study results. It focused on explaining and evaluating what the study found out, showing how it relates to the literature review, the theoretical framework and research objectives, making an argument in support of the overall conclusion. The chapter has indicated that some results are consistent with the literature on the subject matter, whereas part of the results are not in agreement with the literature.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

9.1 Introduction

This chapter mainly focuses on the conclusion and recommendations. It also encompasses the direction of future research on youth unemployment in relation to skills and competencies needed to employ young people in Botswana. On those bases, the chapter highlights several recommendations that are deemed essential for the Youth Development Fund to effectively addressing youth unemployment in Botswana.

9.2 Conclusion

The study sought to explore overall social governance and strategic responses towards solutions for addressing youth unemployment in Botswana. Therefore, the study objectives were to; explore the link between youth empowerment and development through Botswana National Youth Policy of 2010; to identify how youth intervention programmes can be modified and improved to address youth unemployment efficiently and effectively; to enhance the capacity of the government and private sector to design and implement policies and programmes for promoting youth employment, and to derive policy recommendations appropriate to the Botswana context based on the lessons learnt from Japan.

The first chapter of this dissertation provides a background and overview of the study. The key research objectives and research questions were outlined, together with a brief overview of the

methodology adopted for the study. In addition, the second chapter provides a discussion that contextualized this study into the discipline of Policy and Development Studies. Further, the chapter showed the relevance for an investigation on youth unemployment as a key factor for policy intervention for effective and efficient development. Chapter three looked at youth development in the context of Japan, taking into consideration the labour market situation of the youth in Japan. Chapter four examined the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study, putting the context of youth empowerment under spotlight.

Chapter five outlined the research methodology that guided the empirical study into policy implementation and youth socio-economic empowerment. The logic for the sample choice, sample size and the rationale for a mixed research methodology is explained. Chapter six and seven outlined the data collected and provided a discussion of the analysis of the data respectively. Chapter eight provided the interpretation of the data. Lastly, there is Chapter nine which is a summary that draws on both the literature reviewed, and the empirical data collected from participants. The chapter also gives recommendations on how identified challenges can be addressed. The suggested recommendations target the government, development agents, youth organisations and researchers working on youth development and policy implementation. Possible research areas for future researchers are also highlighted.

9.2.1 Lessons learnt from the study

This research concludes by arguing that, there is evidence that policies designed by the government influence the development paths that youth can take. On this basis, it was demonstrated that people responsible for implementing youth intervention programmes are not involved in the critical stages of their conceptualization and formulation. However, the power dynamics which determine the outcome transcends the physical numbers or individual interests. It was concluded here that policy implementation is rarely a linear and coherent process, because it is an outcome of state societal debates involving certain respective actors. Indeed, no single agency can manage policy implementation aimed at promoting youth development and employment creation.

The literature on linear policy models divides policy making and implementation resulting in a “disjuncture” between decision making and implementation. However, this study refuted this analogy, arguing that policy implementers interact with policies changing them as they move through bureaucracies to the community where they are executed. Therefore, it was argued that the rational model is inconclusive in its approach. This underscores the fact that street level bureaucrats are important in determining the outcomes of policy execution.

One of the objectives of the study was to determine the current status of policy frameworks that promote youth empowerment. To achieve this, the study reviewed existing literature on the area and it was established that several policy initiatives were made by the government in this regard. These initiatives have culminated in the government as formally adopting the first National

Policy on Youth in 1996, as its chief strategy for youth development because the government recognised that the youth are disadvantaged and need an urgent attention. However, this recognition did not translate into creating sustainable employment opportunities and improving the quality of life for the youth in a meaningful way.

Instead, there have been increasing concerns that the Youth Policy has not achieved its objectives. Furthermore, on many occasions now, the policy has been found to be inappropriate and ineffective in addressing problems faced by the youth. As a result, the National Youth Policy (1996) was subsequently reviewed and a new policy called the Revised National Youth Policy of 2010 accompanied by the National Youth Action Plan was formed.

One of the lessons that can be deduced from the study is that, whilst there exists a favourable policy framework aligned to the principles and values of youth empowerment and development, the interviews revealed that implementation has failed to benefit many of the youth in Botswana. For instance, it was established that the youth in most of Mogoditshane (situated in the Kweneng district) are generally ignorant of the existing programmes and projects being done by the government. Although there are some who have some knowledge, they indicated that they only hear about the programmes through mass-media and are yet to benefit. The officers in the ministries attributed the challenge to the understaffing which means they cannot cover the vast Kweneng district. On this note, it was concluded that illiteracy among the youth is a contributing factor in the lack of awareness for those who are out of the school.

It was strongly held by ministry officials who took part in the study that, the ministry has good policies and other youth programmes which have excellent provisions. However, the interviewees lamented the inadequate resource provision from their ministry. Even though it plays a critical role in training youth on business management skills, the officers are overburdened and cannot be expected to handle such a mammoth task by themselves without the support of other stakeholders both in the precincts of the government enclave and parastatals. This is further compounded by lack of transport and inaccessibility of some parts in certain remote districts.

The findings of this study can be understood as, although good policies are in existence, they are not implemented religiously, and the youth are scarcely involved in formulating and implementing of interventions which are meant to benefit them. It is worthy to note that, this study has demonstrated that some of the programme officers in the ministry do not know the policies guiding them to implement youth intervention programmes. For instance, many of the officers do not know the thematic areas in the National Youth Policy of 2010, yet they are expected to be the ones leading in the implementation of the policy. This may be considered a further validation of poor implementation of youth programmes and the reason many youth programmes seem not to be attaining their intended objectives.

Perhaps one other key lesson that can be deduced from the study findings is that, political will on the part of the government is a key factor for positive outcomes where youth initiatives are concerned. However, despite the BWP1.2 billion in investment in 10 years as indicated earlier in the study, the youth are still in poverty and facing the high unemployment problem. While the

study shows that the programme has had some successes and failures, it is apparent based on the findings and the literature that the failures outweigh the successes. Clearly, many youth programmes have not helped to reduce poverty and as a result, it can be concluded that the youth programmes have a long way to go before they can effectively drive changes in the economy and in overall poverty alleviation and job creation.

To this end, it can be concluded that under the prevailing conditions, the Youth Development Fund cannot be an answer to poverty alleviation among the youth because too much political interference compromises the quality of the programme. Based on the findings, when the programme was crafted, it was supposed to instil a sense of responsibility to the beneficiaries (50% grants and 50% loans) where it was meant to function as a revolving fund. However, as indicated in the study, beneficiaries ignore their obligations without consequences. Perhaps, if the proposed reforms can be used for policy and practice intervention by the policy makers in the government enclave, meaningful results will be achieved.

It is prudent to highlight that the study sought to establish the missing link between policy objectives and the policy outcomes. As already highlighted, the implementation phase of the policy process is neither smooth nor linear, and the contextual challenges in Botswana show that the government officials face several challenges in their endeavour to transform the lives of the youth in the country. The analysis of the challenges leads to the following; lack of budgetary support for these policies, corruption, political polarisation, lack of independence of the technocrats, are some of the reasons why Botswana continues to grapple with policy implementation challenges. On this basis, the many conclusion that can be drawn from the study

is that, concerted efforts need to be made to improve policy implementation if the aims of the policy are to be achieved.

The present study findings confirm that the most of the current youth programmes are not up to scratch with the contemporary youth expectations. Conspicuously, a national policy must naturally have public input so that the citizens can identify the policy as theirs and not only for certain individuals and/or a certain political party. Earlier on, it has been highlighted that policy formulation should be an outcome of a multi-stakeholder approach emphasising the need for inclusivity. This means that the public needs to access information freely and easily without any proscription or prescription. This can happen in a free environment where equality and equity before the law is guaranteed, and if the leadership can initiate such a deliberate process, many young people would appreciate the policy rationale and problems sought to be addressed by such policies.

The findings from the key informants alluded to the fact that the policies are not receiving adequate funding, which is not surprising for a country with problems of budgetary constraints. In fact, it is a challenge noted in many developing countries where the funding of good ideas has let down many government initiatives. With budget deficits recorded almost on a yearly basis, youth empowerment is not likely to be spared in the austerity measures to cut government spending. Beyond and above having a policy document, there must be resources to support the successful implementation of such a big national youth empowerment policy. It is a fact that the youth are the majority in the population and as such, helping them would require higher commitment.

In addition, the results of the study provide additional information regarding the critics that the policies and/or programmes such as the Youth Development Fund and Constituents sports tournaments are meant for public relations and not for concrete results. The language is very promising but substantive implementation is not forthcoming. Some have likened the policies to the ruling party (BDP) strategies of wooing the voters. The other challenge noted is the coordination aspect. It was concluded that some officials compete rather than cooperate or complement each other in the policy implementation phase. This affects the intended beneficiaries whose time and investments are affected by such lack of coordination. Meanwhile, it is imperative that despite the challenges affecting effective policy implementation, the ministry officials, NGOs officials and other stakeholders are continuing to engage the youth in their limited capacity.

The success or otherwise of social policies depends to a large extent on how they are implemented and put into practice in the field. It can be concluded that social policy practice and research in Botswana is a muddled terrain. In the first place, there is no consensus as to what constitutes social policy. Youth policies and programmes' research agenda has not been given enough attention except by the relatively underdeveloped and underutilised research institutions found in some government ministries.

Therefore, it is the argument of this doctoral dissertation that what needs to be done is to re-design and strengthen existing youth intervention programmes so that they focus more on provision of knowledge and skills building, entrepreneurship, youth empowerment, work ethics,

mentoring, and behaviour change. These skills will combine to change the attitude of the youth towards work as well as empowering unemployed youth to become more independent and hopefully graduate from their dependency on government support to other sustainable economic empowerment ventures.

The main conclusion that can be drawn from this dissertation is that in addressing youth unemployment, youth development and empowerment, there can be no uniform solution hence there must be country specific programmes. Most importantly, young people must be active participants in all programmes, and this participation should recognise existing rural urban as well as gender disparities and inequalities. Productive employment and decent work for young people cannot be achieved through fragmented and isolated interventions. Rather, there must be sustained, determined, and concerted action by a wide range of actor. Thus, the consensus is that youth employment is a cross-cutting and high-priority issue that needs to be addressed within the framework of an interdisciplinary, multi-sectoral, and multi-stakeholder approach.

9.3 Recommendations

The government should consider designing a robust social policy agenda for the youth, in order to effectively address the problem of youth unemployment head on. The policy will provide some ideas and guidance on what to do to address the ever increasing social and economic problems and challenges in Botswana, including poverty, youth unemployment and underemployment. Furthermore, the government must ensure timely implementation of business

reforms with a view to facilitating foreign investment in Botswana. Participants in the Botswana National Service Programme and the recently introduced Graduate Volunteer Scheme should be engaged in productive activities that add value to the economy. There should be clear guidelines for informal industrial training, mentoring, and skills transfer.

Lastly, there is need to conduct periodic reviews of the design and implementation of youth policies and programmes to determine or ascertain the extent to which the actual implementation of the programmes follows the principles of best practice. That youth intervention programmes are relevant is not in dispute, but what is questionable is whether these programmes are producing positive result having a significant impact on the lives of young people in Botswana.

Regarding the research findings, it became clear that the government has yet to establish enabling institutions to reach the disadvantaged and marginalized young entrepreneurs who operate in hostile environments such as peri-urban areas such as the Kweneng and South East districts. There is a need to reassess and re-evaluate the way in which the government disburses funds to support young entrepreneurs with the aim of creating jobs for other youth. This study has found that, it is difficult to ascertain the impact of youth entrepreneurship due to the following reasons: monitoring is weak and therefore, there is no systematic evaluation of youth businesses; there is a risk of saturation of the same line of business; and there are insufficient organizations for youth entrepreneurship development especially in villages such as Ramotswa, Mogoditshane and Tlokweng. Based on the findings, the following recommendations are suggested to influence research, policy and practice intervention in this regard.

Firstly, the unavailability of relevant research related to youth challenges such as unemployment and possible solutions may be due to lack of sufficient data in Botswana. Although data generation may be a costly process, it is crucial for the effective implementation of sound policies and programmes that are informed and guided by research. Without authentic data, policies passed may have unintended negative consequences. Notably, having perused the literature, few developing countries have reliable data on youth unemployment rates.

This study therefore proposes public-private partnerships in data generation and intensive, more rigorous research in Botswana to guide policy implementation. It recommends that further research be conducted, perhaps at national level to describe and elucidate in greater detail the challenges of youth entrepreneurship development in Botswana, covering more geographical areas, inter alia; surban, semi-urban, semi-rural, and rural areas in different districts. This will help to identify which impediments have more impact than others and which area or problem needs to be urgently addressed.

Secondly, it is worth to note that successful implementation of government-led youth policies and programmes are also undermined by failure of the state to provide pre-finance training and mentoring on business management to programme beneficiaries. For example, with the Youth Development Fund, training is provided after approval of the beneficiaries' application and subsequent funding. On this basis, it is strategic that youth in Botswana be equipped with entrepreneurial knowledge and skills through entrepreneurship training, and pre-funding capacity building through exchange programmes to provide aspiring semi-urban youth entrepreneurs with support and business exposure.

This is crucial because as young people finish high school, some will not proceed to tertiary institutions. Furthermore, not all of those graduating from tertiary institutions are able to access employment opportunities. Vocational Training Centres around Botswana may have been set up, but there is still a need to investigate the extent to which they equip youth with entrepreneurial competencies. On this note, there is also a need to assess the extent to which tertiary institutions equip youth with relevant entrepreneurial skills.

Thirdly, the government should consider designing a robust social policy agenda for the youth through the promotion of entrepreneurship activities among them in a more sustainable manner, that will not encourage them to be dependent on the government. Only youth with the potential to grow their businesses need to be supported and provided with resources. Furthermore, the youth in Botswana should be encouraged to be independent and take responsibility for their own business success or failure, and to do this, they need to seek the necessary skill establishment and growth of their profitable businesses. It is also imperative to establish why many of youth entrepreneurs' businesses collapse within a year of operation as has been identified in the study. This may explain why many businesses are abandoned and others display poor performance.

The government needs to invest in resources geared towards encouraging youth entrepreneurship activities. Inclusive training and education on new venture creation and management may be one such sustainable investment with possible future and long-term benefits. The Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development should intensify the exposure of youth who intend to venture into entrepreneurship as opposed to one- or two-days business trainings that are

currently conducted by programmes officers. Partnerships with government departments and non-governmental organizations should be promoted as the study findings indicated that these organizations play a crucial role in youth entrepreneurship development. On the other hand, the government should strive to undertake mass campaigns to promote youth entrepreneurship among peri-urban dwellers by enlisting the support of leaders in their communities to encourage the youth to aspire to entrepreneurship and self-employment rather than relying on state provision.

Fourthly, the study recommends that local authorities should work to promote entrepreneurship in their respective areas as this also contributes to the development of districts and the nation. In doing so, they should work with government agencies and ministries that support youth entrepreneurship in a way that will benefit the youth in their respective districts. They should also work hand in hand with young people to provide real solutions to the challenges they are faced with, as the study findings show that youth entrepreneurs appreciate the assistance and support, they obtain from other stakeholders.

Lastly, the researcher has also learnt from the current study findings and in the scholarly literature available in Botswana that youth development funded projects have been experiencing a high failure rate due to various reasons which included lack of commitment by project owners, conflicting interests of beneficiaries, market penetration, limited business management and technical skills and high and unsustainable rentals. The programme is without criticism both from social commentators and academics. In the year 2017, Public Accounts Committee (PAC) branded the Youth Development Fund a “cash cow”. Member of the PAC asked the Ministry of

Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development to consider suspending the programme in order to develop essential frameworks necessary for the success of the programme.

Therefore, based on the lessons learnt and considering the challenges presented above, it is pertinent to ask; how can the programme be improved and/or implemented in order for it to address youth unemployment and social problems head on? Is the youth entrepreneurship development fund the answer to poverty alleviation among the youth? Clearly, as the findings demonstrates that, the Youth Development Fund as currently designed and implemented is not effective, and therefore needs to be re-designed. For instance, based on the current study findings and anecdotal evidence; beneficiaries ignore their obligations without consequences, there is risk of saturation of the same type of business, actual impact is difficult to ascertain, and monitoring and evaluation is weak. Hence, it is the contention of the authors of this research that there is a need to make the fund contribute significantly to macro-economic priorities such as economic diversification, import substitution and job creation. As a result, this study proposes key areas for reform below.

9.3.1 Fund structure overhaul

Based on the findings and lessons learnt from the literature regarding the implementation of the Youth Development Fund and other youth intervention programmes, it is the contention of this study that there is a need for repositioning the Youth Development Fund programme for it to achieve its objectives. Currently, the program targets only youth not in employment, education or training (NEET). Therefore, the researcher proposes that the programme should be open to any

youth on condition that they leave their job when approved for funding. Furthermore, this dissertation argues that the government on its own cannot address the complex and multifaceted youth unemployment challenge which precipitates poverty. Henceforth, there is a need for the fund structure to be overhauled on the grounds that if it is operated by the government, political interference will continue to compromise the quality of the programme.

Therefore, it is time the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development considers that the programme be operated by the private sector and/or public-private partnerships with relevant stakeholders. This is suggested on the basis that currently, the country is grappling with a high youth unemployment rate as mentioned earlier in the study. As a result, having effective and efficient public-private partnership (PPP) will be critical for youth employment creation. Perhaps, the PPP could include young people themselves to conceptualize, design, implement, monitor and evaluate the programme.

9.3.2 A split of the programme

This dissertation proposes that the Youth Development Fund programme should be split into two. The split will enable the transformation of the programme into a fund that supports youth ventures in production value chains and light manufacturing. Furthermore, there should be two components that address the social aspects and the purely entrepreneurial aspects. The latter aspect should strictly fund youth with a clear demonstration of superior business knowledge and aptitude through robust and/or rigorous screening. For instance, value addition should be taken

into consideration, arts, culture and tourism sector industries, mass employment and innovation that will create jobs for graduates.

Moreover, projects that utilize technology and help Botswana into light manufacturing and food processing. Accordingly, funded enterprises must have the potential to transform into mass employment generating agencies producing to export. With this arrangement, there should be a mandatory training and exchanges prior to fund disbursement. There should be monitoring, coaching, mentorship and exchange to support enterprise growth. In addition, smart partnerships with industries should be encouraged, 60% of YDF funds should be reserved for this proposed entrepreneurial component, and all administration of this fund be outsourced or run by the PPP as suggested earlier on.

On the flip side, YDF for social aspects will continue to cover youth not in employment, education or training with 40% of the YDF annual subvention. This will work for those producing products not necessarily of any higher value addition, especially to support most rural applicants because they too deserve to benefit from YDF as the revised national youth policy of 2010 dictates. This component of YDF is proposed to be administered by MYSC through District office like it's the case currently.

9.4 Suggestions for future research

Based on the study findings, and recommendations the following specific proposals are made for future research.

- There is a need for an empirical research to guide the formulation; implementation and monitoring of the youth development interventions (policies and programmes) that are meant to directly address youth unemployment.

- Taking into consideration the multidimensional character of employability; future research should draw insights from a combination of multiple models in order to extend knowledge on the subject and influence policy changes.

- The study also recommends that future study in other parts of Botswana should be conducted, to explore better understanding of their special needs. Country's government customized plans, policies, strategies and intervention mechanism could be purposed based on unique characteristics of each city or town. Similarly, future research can investigate the different attributes of youth owned enterprises in the country.

- The apparent lack of skills among youth calls for increased investment and access to specialized training and skills formation activities in tandem with the broader education expansion efforts to improve their employment prospects.

Specific suggestions to the government

- Policies and programmes aimed at eradicating poverty and unemployment among young people in Botswana and elsewhere in Africa must necessarily address the socio-economic, socio-economic, socio-political and cultural realities confronting them daily. Moreover, development policies must priorities the growth of rural areas, which have high percentages of unemployed youth and little public infrastructure, by engaging youth people in creating necessary services and infrastructure.
- The Botswana government through the Ministry of Youth empowerment, Sports and Culture Development should focus on youth entrepreneurship development initiatives. Such initiatives should offer business development services that are tailored to nurture business ventures. These may include business advice, counselling, training, finance, mentoring and incubators. For these business development services, support from local and international NGOs, technical collages should collaborate to foster sustainable business development as well as growth in youth owned businesses. The effective and efficient support structure of the government to nurture business development should be established in throughout the country.
- The overall education curriculum must be revised, for instance, primary, junior secondary and senior schools' teachers should be trained in teaching entrepreneurial skills so that children can realize their potential and become motivated in entrepreneurship early in life. Moreover, universities should include business incubators and mentors to promote

aspiring as well as other entrepreneurs within the academic environment and offer entrepreneurship courses in their curriculum. In this way, youth intervention programmes will be able to effectively address high youth unemployment in Botswana head on.

- The purposed government youth entrepreneurship support structure should coordinate with private entrepreneurship promoting organizations in a campaign that teaches and trains school learners and university students and graduates with an idea that entrepreneurship as a best option for economic participation. Just like in Japan, youth entrepreneurs could also share their experience with these school learners and university graduates with the aim of developing entrepreneurship mindsets. It may help to build networks amongst learners, support structures and existing entrepreneurs. Similarly, more donor agencies should be encouraged to assist youth entrepreneurship activities. Also, mass media and communication should be used to create awareness about issues and problems encountered in youth entrepreneurship development.

- The government should create a conducive environment for business development by providing business support services that are accessible to young people. This would strengthen the enthusiasm amongst young entrepreneurs as well as aspiring entrepreneurs in entrepreneurial activities. Thus, it should introduce different entrepreneurial strategies coordinating with different stakeholders and be correctly implemented.

Specific suggestions to private institutions

- Private institutions such as banks and other micro finance institutions should introduce youth entrepreneurship funding as a part of their services, and they should not take advantage by imposing high costs of capital in their offerings. A special credit program should be started for youth entrepreneurship project in urban areas. As there are substantial markets and facilities in urban areas such as Gaborone, Lobatse, Francistown, Jwaneng, Maun and Selibe-Phikwe so there is more potentiality to introduce new youth owned ventures.

- Getting lessons from Japan, private organizations in Botswana should welcome learners who need exposures and experience in their businesses by providing services such as internships, in-service training, leadership development and other voluntary participation for skill enhancement and experience. Furthermore, they should equip learners in school and college with entrepreneurial and managerial skills, influencing their attitude should towards pursuing entrepreneurship.

Specific suggestions youth entrepreneurs

- Even though most of the young entrepreneurs in this study felt that the demand for goods and services of their businesses is satisfactory, frequently changing business environments may not support their demand in the future. Therefore, in order to remain competitive in the market, youth entrepreneurs in Botswana need to have entrepreneurial skills such as creativity, innovation, new product development, new marketing strategies and networking.
- A collective and collaborative marketing system amongst youth entrepreneurs in Tlokweng, Gaborone and other surrounding areas is highly advisable and recommended, on the grounds that it will help the youth to remain competitive against that unfair practice of high rentals.

APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Principal Investigator: Kabo Diraditsile

Phone number(s): +81 80 5916 8949 or +267 72920782

Dear Participant,

My name is Kabo Diraditsile (*Student number 391715G1-7*). I am a Doctoral Student at Waseda University in Tokyo, Japan under Japanese government scholarship. The title of my thesis is “*A quest for relevance: a study on social policies and strategic responses towards solutions for improving youth employment and socio-economic empowerment in Southern Africa with special emphasize to Botswana*”. The aim of the study is to examine the weakness of the current youth interventions with the view of proposing long lasting solutions. I am interested in interviewing you so as to share your experience and observations on the subject matter.

Please note:

- a). The information that you provide will be used for scholarly research only.

- b). Your participation is entirely voluntary. You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research. Please note that you will not be penalized for taking such an action.

c). Your views in this interview will be presented anonymously. Neither your name nor identify will be disclosed in any form in the study.

d). Kindly note that the interview will take about 40 minutes.

e). The record as well as other items associated with the interview will be held in a password-protected file accessible only to me and my supervisors. After a period of 5 years, in line with the rules of the University, it will be disposed by shredding and burning.

f). If you agree to participate please sign the declaration attached to this statement (a separate sheet will be provided for signature).

If you have any questions concerning this study I can be contacted at: Waseda University, Graduate School of Social Sciences, Tokyo-Japan. Email: kabodira@fuji.waseda.jp Cell: +81 80 4788 0835 or +267 72920726 (Botswana).

My supervisor is **Prof Shinoda Toru** who is located at the Graduate School of Social Sciences, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. Contact details: email torus@waseda.jp Phone number: +81 03 3204 8952.

Declaration

I, _____ (*full names of the participants*) hereby confirm that I duly understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and therefore consent to taking part. I also understand that I am not coerced neither forced to take part, that I am a liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I desire. I understand that this research is done for academic purpose in partial fulfilment of the degree award. I therefore agree to participate.

Participant Signature: **Date:**

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BENEFICIARIES

Dear participant;

My name is Kabo Diraditsile (*Student number 391715G1-7*). I am a Doctoral Student at Waseda University in Tokyo, Japan under Japanese government scholarship. The title of my thesis is “*Understanding the dynamics of youth development and socio-economic empowerment: A study on social policies and strategic responses towards solutions for improving youth employment in Southern Africa with special emphasis on Botswana*”. I would be very grateful if you would provide the relevant information, I need to complete this research successfully. Your response will be strictly kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this academic project. Thank you.

Demographic Characteristics

Gender: Male Female

Age:

Marital status: Single Married Divorced Widowed

Education level: BGCSE Diploma Degree Masters PhD

Year of funding: _____

Location: _____

Q1. What motivated you to apply for youth development fund (YDF)?

- a) Entrepreneurial aspirations

- b) Unemployment
- c) Improved livelihoods
- d) Broadening career options
- e) Meeting the needs of the community
- f) Last resort
- g) Others, specify: _____

Q2. How did you get to know about the program?

- a) Social media
- b) Newspapers
- c) TV or Radio broadcast
- d) Information session by MYSC
- e) Political representative (MP, area Councilor)
- f) Family and friends
- g) Others, specify: _____

Q3. What type of business are you into?

- a) Manufacturing
- b) Services
- c) Agriculture
- d) Tourism
- e) Others, specify: _____

Q4. Do you think that the funds were sufficient?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) Others, specify: _____

Q5. How long have you been running your business?

- a) Less than a year
- b) 1 – 2 years
- c) 3 – 4 years
- d) 5 years & above

Q6. Are you able to repay the loan as per the memorandum of the agreement?

- a) Regularly
- b) Sometimes
- c) Not at all

Q7. If our answer above is “*sometimes*” or “*not at all*”, kindly provide reasons for failing to repay the loan regularly

Q8. Does your business still exist?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Q9. If collapsed or not progressing well, kindly provide reasons for the situation (*Multiple responses*)

- a) Shortage of funds
- b) High competition in the industry
- c) Limited business management skills
- d) Poor financial literacy (book keeping)
- e) Mismanagement of funds
- f) High operation costs (High rentals, remuneration, etc)
- g) High production costs (Materials, machinery, etc)
- h) Lack of motivation to continue with the business
- i) Lack of understanding the market
- j) Unreliable suppliers
- k) Lack of support from MYSC
- l) Lack of support from service providers (LEA, CEDA, etc)
- m) Others, specify: _____

Q10. Do you think that you received sufficient business training from MYSC prior to running your business?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Q11. If you answer above is NO, what do you suggest could be introduced in the training

Q12. Prior to getting funds did you have relevant knowledge and skill for the nature of business you're running?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) Others, specify: _____

Q13: How many youth has your business employed?

- a) None
- b) 1-5
- c) 6-10

d) 11 and above

Q14. What is the main benefits you have attained as s result of YDF among the following

- a) Acquisition of economic assets such as (land, house, car, etc.)
- b) Self sufficient in meeting domestic basic needs (Food, shelter, clothing)
- c) Increased access to health and medical care
- d) Meeting school needs for children and self educational or vocational advancement
- e) No any improvement to livelihood
- f) Others, specify _____

Q15. Is the market for your business always available and accessible?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) Unstable

Q16. If the answer for the above question is “No” or “unstable”, what is the main reason for the situation?

- a) Lack of marketing skills
- b) Poor infrastructure
- c) Lack of processing technology to add value
- d) Imported goods
- e) Others, please specify _____

Q17. To what extent has YDF programme managed to meet your expectations?

- a) Very little extent
- b) Very great extent
- c) None
- d) Others, please specify _____

Q18. Do you think that YDF under its current form is still relevant?

- a) Still relevant, should be continued
- b) Irrelevant, should be stopped
- c) I don't know
- d) Others, specify: _____

Q19. What do you think by monitoring and evaluation carried by MYSC, does it benefit your business? Please explain your answer

Q20. What do you think can be done for YDF to have impact in employment creation and improvement of youth livelihoods?

Thank you for your kind cooperation

Appendix C

INTERVIEW FOR PPO/DC

Dear participant;

My name is Kabo Diraditsile (*Student number 391715G1-7*). I am a Doctoral Student at Waseda University in Tokyo, Japan under Japanese government scholarship. The title of my thesis is “*Understanding the dynamics of youth development and socio-economic empowerment: A study on social policies and strategic responses towards solutions for improving youth employment in Southern Africa with special emphasis on Botswana*”. I would be very grateful if you would provide the relevant information I need to complete this research successfully. Your response will be strictly kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this academic project. Thank you.

Demographic Characteristics

Title of the officer: _____

Duration in MYSC: _____

Gender: Male Female

Age:

Education level: Certificate Diploma Degree Masters PhD

Location: _____

Q1. In your view, is youth unemployment an issue in Botswana?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) I don't know

Q2. If your response above is YES, what has been done to address youth unemployment by MYSC?

Q3. Do you think interventions meant to address youth unemployment under MYSC are producing results?

- h) Yes
- i) No
- j) I don't know

Q4. If YES/NO, in your own views why do you think so:

Q5. Has there ever been any impact assessment/evaluation of the current youth intervention programmes?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) I don't know

Q6. If Yes, when was the evaluation done and for which programme(s)?

Q7. If No, why has there never been any impact assessment?

Q8. With regard to YDF, to what extent are the youth activities initiated still operational?

- a) Highly operating
- b) Moderately operating
- c) Most have collapse
- d) I don't know
- e) Others, specify: _____

Q9. For collapsed projects or those not doing well, what are the reasons behind that?

Q10. What efforts have you undertaken to alleviate the problem of collapsed projects or those that are not doing well?

Q11. In your view, is there a difference between the life standard of youth who received YDF and those who didn't?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) I don't know

Q12. Please explain your answer above

Q13. Does your ministry provide entrepreneurship training to YDF beneficiaries prior to disbursement of the funds?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) I'm not sure
- d) I don't know

Q14. What main challenges do you face in the implementation of the YDF program?

Q15. What efforts have you taken to overcome the challenges above?

Q16. Are beneficiaries able to consult with Programme Officers about their challenges?

Q17. Do you think that Programmes Officers are doing a thorough job with regards to monitoring of projects and overall programme implementation? *(Kindly elaborate)*

Q18. Do you think YDF is still relevant for youth development and addressing youth unemployment in Botswana?

- a) Yes
- b) No
- c) I don't know

Q19. Kindly explain your answer above

Q20. What do you think can be done to address high youth unemployment in Botswana?

Thank you for your kind cooperation

APPENDIX D
INTERVIEW FOR PROGRAMMES OFFICERS

Dear participant;

My name is Kabo Diraditsile (*Student number 391715G1-7*). I am a Doctoral Student at Waseda University in Tokyo, Japan under Japanese government scholarship. The title of my thesis is “*Understanding the dynamics of youth development and socio-economic empowerment: A study on social policies and strategic responses towards solutions for improving youth employment in Southern Africa with special emphasis on Botswana*”. I would be very grateful if you would provide the relevant information, I need to complete this research successfully. Your response will be strictly kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this academic project. Thank you.

Demographic Characteristics

Title of the officer: _____

Duration in MYSC: _____

1. What youth programmes are currently under your Ministry?

2. In your own view, what's your understanding of the term Youth Development and Youth empowerment?

3. Do you think the goals and targets of youth programmes have been met so far? In particular, Youth Development Fund (YDF)

4. What are some of the challenges you are facing in implementing all youth programmes
(Is it in the design of the programme or implementation)

5. Can you say you're fully equipped to run youth programmes under your jurisdiction?
(please explain your answer)

6. Do you think youth programmes have had an impact on the improvement of the
livelihoods of youth in Botswana?

7. Why do youth interventions programmes seem not to be producing tangible results?

8. Do you think you are involved in the conceptualization of youth programmes?

9. Based on your experience/views what do you think could be done differently for programmes to produce results

10. Lastly, what do you think can be done to address high youth unemployment in Botswana

Thank you for your kind cooperation

Appendix E

Focus Group Discussion

1. What youth development programmes are currently under your Ministry?
2. Do you understand the goals and objectives of youth programmes?
3. Do you think the goals and targets have been met so far?
4. What are some of the challenges you are facing in implementing the programmes

Probe: is it in the design of the programme or implementation?

5. Can you say you're fully equipped to run youth empowerment programmes under your jurisdiction?
6. Do you think these programmes have had impact on improvement of livelihood of young people in Botswana?
7. How come youth interventions programmes seem not to be producing tangible results?
8. Do you think you are involved in the conceptualization of youth programmes

9. Based on your experience/views what do you think can be done differently for programmes to produced results

10. Anything else that you would like to share with me

Appendix F

Tokyo, Nishitokyo-shi, Izumi Chou
3-3-1, Leoplace Izumi Dai2 101
Tokyo 202-0011
JAPAN

Mobile: (+81) 80-4788-0835

Email: kabodira@fuji.waseda.jp

20th March 2019

To: Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development
Private Bag 00514
CBD, Gaborone
Botswana

Dear Sir/Madam,

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A SCHOLARLY RESEARCH

My name is Kabo Diraditsile, I am a doctoral candidate (*student no: 391715G1*) at Waseda University in Tokyo-Japan, under Japanese Government Doctorate Scholarship (MEXT). The title of my thesis is “*Understanding the Dynamics of Youth Development and Socio-Economic Empowerment: A study on Social Policy and Strategic Responses for Improving Youth Employment in Japan and Asian developing countries. Lessons for Southern Africa with special emphasizes to Botswana*”.

2. This project will be conducted under the supervision of Dr Morena J. Rankopo from the University of Botswana and Prof Shinoda Toru, my academic supervisor from Waseda University.

3. The overall objectives of the study is to derive policy recommendations appropriate to Botswana context based on the lessons from Japan and other Asian Developing countries. In addition, the study seeks to identify how youth development intervention programmes can be modified and improved to address youth unemployment effectively; to enhance the capacity of the government and private sector in designing, implementing policies and programmes promoting youth employment.

4. Notably, the contribution of this doctoral thesis will be situated on three levels. First, there is an expected contribution to scientific theory on youth development and empowerment.

Secondly, it is expected that the findings may identify gaps, problems and inadequacies in existing policies on youth development and trends in labour markets in Botswana. Lastly, contribution to practice in terms of assisting professional and practitioners such as policy makers, economists, sociologists, youth development officer, just to mention a few, to be able to address the plight of youth unemployment which has reached unprecedented proportions in the African region.

5. Upon completion of the study, I will duly provide your ministry with a bound copy of the full research report. If you require any further clarification, kindly do not hesitate to contact me.

6. Thank you in anticipation for a positive response in consideration of my request.

Yours sincerely

Kabo Diraditsile
MEXT Scholar
PhD Candidate – Social Governance
Graduate School of Social Sciences
Waseda University, Tokyo - Japan

Appendix G

21 March 2019

Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development
Gaborone, Botswana.

RE: Research permit application submitted by Mr Kabo Diraditsile

I am writing this letter in support of an application for a research permit by Mr. Kabo Diraditsile, a doctoral student in Waseda University based on the Graduate School of Social Sciences. Mr Diraditsile is under Japanese government scholarship, and the title of his doctoral thesis is “*Understanding the Dynamics of Youth Development and Socio-Economic Empowerment: A study on Social Policy and Strategic Responses for Improving Youth Employment in Japan. Lessons for Southern Africa with special emphasizes to Botswana*”. Waseda University, Graduate School of Social Sciences is satisfied with the process for data collection, analysis and the intended utilization of the findings from this doctoral research and is confident that it will be conducted effectively and in accordance with international ethical norms and guidelines accepted in the scientific community.

We will appreciate your kind and timely consideration of his application. We thank you in advance for your anticipated cooperation and support.

Warmest regards

Prof Shinoda Toru
Academic supervisor
Graduate School of Social Sciences
Waseda University.

Appendix H

TEL: (+267) 3901186
FAX: (+267) 3913473

MINISTRY OF SPORT YOUTH AND CULTURE
PRIVATE BAG 00514
GABORONE
BOTSWANA



REF: MYSC 9/2/1 XI (13)

26 April 2019

Kabo Diraditsile
3-3-1, Leopalace Izumi Dai2 101
Tokyo 2002-0011, Japan

RESEARCH PERMIT- KABO DIRADITSILE

This serves to acknowledge your application to do research titled **“Understanding the Dynamics of Youth Development and Socio-Economic Empowerment: A study on Social Policy and Strategic Responses for Improving Youth Employment in Japan and Asian developing countries. Lessons for Southern Africa with special emphasizes to Botswana”** The Permit is granted for a period of one (1) year, commencing 26 April 2019 to the 26 April 2020 and is granted under the following conditions:

1. Copies of the final product of the study are to be directly deposited with the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development, National Library Services, National Archives and Records Services and Office of Research and Development Unit in the University of Botswana.
2. The Permit does not give you authority to enter premises, private establishment or protected areas. Permission for such areas should be negotiated with those concerned.
3. You conduct your study according to particulars furnished in the application you submitted taking into account the above conditions.
4. Failure to comply with any of the above conditions will result in the immediate cancellation of the Permit.

Thank you

Yours Faithfully

Tsaone K Ramatlhare

For/Permanent Secretary



Cc: Director, National Archives and Records Services
National Librarian, National Library Services
Director, Office of Research and Development, University of Botswana



Appendix I



Faculty of Social Sciences

Department of Social Work

Corner of Notwane and Mobutu Road,
Gaborone, Botswana

Pvt Bag 00705
Gaborone
Botswana

Tel: [267] 355 2684
Fax: [267] 318 5099
E-mail: socialwork@mopipi.ub.bw

27th February, 2019


Waseda University
International Office
International Affairs Division

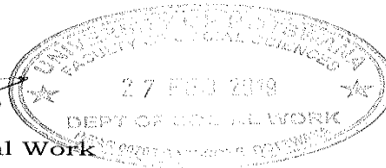
RE: HOSTING PARTY APPROVAL LETTER

This serves to inform your institution that **Mr. Kabo Diraditsile** will be hosted by the University of Botswana, Department of Social Work for his overseas research. I Dr. Morena Rankopo will be the person directly responsible for hosting the applicant from 4th June to 26th July, 2019.

For any clarification kindly do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours faithfully


Dr Morena Rankopo
Senior Lecturer
Department of Social Work
Faculty of Social Sciences
University of Botswana
Tell: +267 355 2688
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www.ub.bw

Appendix J

7 May, 2019

社会科学研究科/Graduate School of Social Sciences

Kabo Diraditsile

Dean, International Affairs Division

FY2019 Overseas Research Travel Grant Program for Master's/Doctoral Course Students

Result Announcement

<May 2019 Application>

This is to announce the selection result. The grant is scheduled to be provided by the beginning of May. The program is aimed at providing support for only round-trip airfares (economy class) and accommodation fees.

Result	Applicant	Supervisor
Accepted	Kabo Diraditsile	Shinoda Toru
Scheduled Program Period	Research Place	Grant Amount
2019/6/4-2019/7/26	University of Botswana (Botswana)	\ 150000

The process from selection through grant recipients' return to Japan is outlined in 8.1 – 8.3 below.

1. Applicants selected for this grant program must submit the following documents to their department office prior to departure. Please apply far enough in advance to allow time to complete all pre-departure procedures.

① “Procedures for enrolling in designated overseas travel insurance” (「指定海外旅行保険加入手続き」)*

② Overseas travel notices such as a travel application and notice of study abroad, etc. (please contact your department office for details).

*Procedures for enrolling in Overseas Travel Insurance (comprehensive contract)

Program participants are obligated to purchase an overseas travel insurance plan designated by Waseda University and are responsible for charges associated therewith. Each of the participants needs to submit an “Overseas Travel Insurance Application Form” (must be filled out by the participant him/herself and accompanied by a copy of the insurance premium receipt) to their department office.

Campus Insurance Center Inc. (Open Hours) M-F 9:00-17:30

4F Okuma Square Building, 1-9-12 Nishiwaseda, Shinjyuku-ku, Tokyo

(TEL) 03-5272-3475 (Email) hoken@waseda-pm.com

2. Grant recipients or their department offices must complete the following procedures depending on if their return date falls within the current fiscal year A. or in the following fiscal year B.

A. When returning to Japan within the current fiscal year:

①The recipient must submit plane ticket stubs, invoices or receipts for airfare and accommodation receipts to the office of his/her department.

②The department office of the recipient collects all of the above necessary items and proceeds with the payment process.

B. When returning to Japan in the following fiscal year:

①Recipient must submit airfare invoices or receipts as well as accommodation receipts to his/her department office early enough such that accounting procedures can be completed within the current fiscal year.

②The recipient's department office will carry out accounting procedures based on the information submitted by the recipient.

③The recipient must submit plane ticket stubs to his/her department office upon return to Japan.

3. The recipient must submit a post-program report after returning to Japan on My Waseda.

濱田 大輔 (Daisuke Hamada (Mr.))

早稲田大学

国際部国際課

International Office, International Affairs Division, Waseda University

TEL: +81(0)3-3203-7747 (ext.71-2187)

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